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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Vol. I

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By DOUGLAS WAPLES

Acting Dean, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago

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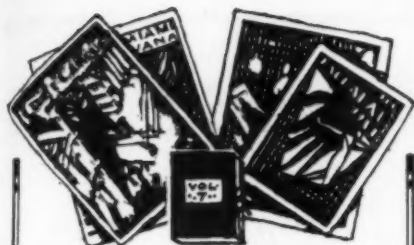
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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Volume I

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THE PUBLIC LIBRARY UNDER THE CITY- MANAGER FORM OF GOVERNMENT¹

I. INTRODUCTION

THAT the public library is a relatively insignificant part of municipal government will probably be admitted even by its staunchest supporters. From the purely material standpoint, the amount of public money spent by libraries is, absolutely or relatively, a mere trifle in comparison with the huge total of modern municipal expenditures. In spite of all efforts of the American Library Association to raise the minimum rate of library appropriations to one dollar per capita, the proportion of city funds spent for the operation of libraries has actually decreased from 1.5 per cent of the total in 1903 to 1.3 per cent in 1925.²

Moreover, notwithstanding the best publicity efforts of modern librarians, the library has never been a spectacular feature of government. The basis of its success consists of thousands of individual units of service to its many users. It cannot point with pride to single outstanding achievements, such as the con-

¹ The data on which this study is based were collected in 1928, and the picture presented should be viewed as of that date. A few changes have since occurred in the list of manager cities and in the legal status of one or two libraries, but these have not materially affected the conclusions reached.

² U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Financial statistics of cities having a population of over 30,000, 1925*, p. 51.

struction of a new street or a new bridge, the capture of a notorious criminal, or the extinguishing of a dangerous fire. The very purity of the administration of municipal public libraries, which have been almost entirely free from even the suspicion of graft or financial maladministration, has kept them out of the public eye. The salaries of librarians have always been extremely modest, and library positions have never, therefore, been attractive to the professional politician and his henchmen.

For more than forty years, since the establishment of the first training school for librarians at Columbia University in 1887,¹ the idea of a specially trained personnel in the administration of libraries has been well established and is now almost universally accepted. Even prior to the date mentioned, the distinguished learning of early public librarians in the United States—men such as Justin Winsor and Charles Coffin Jewett, of the Boston Public Library; William Frederick Poole, of Cincinnati and Chicago; Frederick M. Crunden, of St. Louis; and many others—had stamped the new profession of “librarianship” as one requiring the highest qualities of scholarship.

The cumulative result of the foregoing facts has been that the public library has been allowed to pursue the rather even tenor of its way without attracting more than a modest share of popular interest and attention. Individual citizens have made increasing use of its growing facilities, but the public as a whole has accepted the services of the library without particular inquiry as to how these services came to be and as to their exact place in the growing complexity of the municipal organism.

Historically, the actual position of the public library in the governmental organization of the city and state developed principally along two lines. Establishment of libraries in both of these ways went on more or less simultaneously, and both are still in active use at the present time.

The first of these two types of organization tied the library to the educational system of the state by authorizing the establishment of libraries by school districts. The New York law of 1835²

¹ A. E. Bostwick, *The American public library* (3d ed., rev., 1923), p. 344.

² C. K. Bolton, *American library history* (1919), p. 10; W. F. Yust, *Library legislation* (2d ed., rev., 1921), p. 2.

provided for the organization of school-district libraries and was followed by similar laws in other states.¹ In comparatively recent years, this idea of school-district libraries has been given new impetus; in Ohio, for instance, a number of city libraries have changed to this type of organization.²

Although the school-district library was actually earlier in the field and still maintains a considerable measure of importance, it may, nevertheless, be stated without hesitation that the most common and most typical form of public-library organization is still that in which the library is administered as a municipal³ function by a board of trustees especially constituted for this purpose.⁴ The Boston Public Library, which was opened in 1854, under the authority of a law passed by the general court of the state in 1848,⁵ was administered by a board of library trustees, and this plan was taken up in city after city as the public-library movement spread. The development of "board" administration was, after all, only natural, for the years following 1850 were the heyday of the board system, "which fastened itself upon American city government" almost as rapidly as new activities were undertaken by the city.⁶

So firmly has the board idea intrenched itself in library administration that librarians themselves have come to regard it almost as a sacred and inalienable right, variation from which is unthinkable and not to be tolerated. Scant space is given in writings by librarians to other forms of library government; and the librarian has come, pretty generally, to accept the *sui generis* idea of the library's place in municipal affairs. The librarian still feels that the public library *is* different and distinct from all other parts of the municipal government and, as such, is entitled to special and separate consideration at all times. He often fails

¹ American Library Association, *A Survey of libraries in the United States*, II (1926), 234-35.

² J. A. Lowe, *Some aspects of public library management* (preliminary ed., 1926), p. 14.

³ The word "municipal," as used in this study, refers to the functions of a city, as contrasted with the functions of a school district.

⁴ W. B. Munro, *Government of American cities* (4th ed., 1926), p. 353; *idem*, *Municipal government and administration*, II (1923), 19.

⁵ Bostwick, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

⁶ T. H. Reed, *Municipal government in the United States* (1926), pp. 73-74.

to realize that the board plan was but one phase of the development of municipal administration and that library organization took shape as it did largely because of the existing fashion prevalent at the moment in municipal government rather than from any special design.¹

And fashions in American municipal government have changed and are still changing with considerable frequency. Both of the two general plans of library organization just mentioned—the school-district plan and the board-of-trustees plan—were, in general, based on state laws and regulations. Schools have been firmly established as matters of state concern, and hence school-district libraries were naturally regulated by state laws rather than by municipal charters. Municipal public libraries were also established under the provisions of general state library laws, which have been passed in every state in the Union except Delaware.²

The idea thus established that the library was a matter for state legislation and control was destined to considerable modification and readjustment by the expansion of the city's powers and activities as the idea of municipal home rule developed. Out of the welter of confusion and maladjustment found in the conflict between state and local functions and powers, the library has often found itself in new and not altogether welcome positions in the municipal hierarchy.

The first change in the fashion of municipal government which caused difficulty for the peace of mind of librarians was the so-called "commission" plan, which gained rapidly in popularity in the early years of the twentieth century.³ In the rearrangement of municipal functions under the commission plan of government, the once independent and separate public library sometimes found itself in strange company, much to its distress.⁴ The American Library Association considered this problem in

¹ W. Anderson, *American city government* (1925), pp. 295, 302, 427.

² American Library Association, *op. cit.*, II, 234.

³ Reed, *op. cit.*, pp. 203-12.

⁴ Alice S. Tyler, "Effect of the commission plan of city government on public libraries," *American Library Association Bulletin*, V (1911), 98-103.

its annual conferences of 1912 and 1913, and in 1913 a "Committee on Relations between the Library and the Municipality" laid down as desiderata that "the library should be administered by a separate board of trustees, not by a single commissioner," and that the library was an educational matter and therefore a state, rather than a municipal, affair.¹ Actually, the commission plan of government had relatively little effect on the public library, for it usually did not abolish the board of trustees, although it frequently put that board under the control of the mayor or of a single commissioner.²

With the foregoing foundation, we are perhaps in a better position to consider the place of the library in the latest fashion of American municipal government, the "council-manager" form.

The findings in this study are based on examination of the charters and municipal reports of the twenty-nine largest cities in the United States now operating under council-manager government, including all cities with a population of 50,000 or more according to the latest census estimates. A study of the facts in the numerous smaller cities would, so far as the writer is aware, not develop any essentially new types of organization or administration. Most of the public libraries in the cities studied are large enough to be fairly important cogs in the municipal machine, worthy of serious attention in framing the form of government for the cities concerned. These findings have been checked by a rather lengthy questionnaire sent to each city, by consultation of the very complete reports of individual libraries made to the American Library Association for its *Survey* published in 1926, supplemented in some instances by correspondence with librarians and city managers.

In presenting the facts regarding the various types of library organization and management as found in these twenty-nine cities, it has not seemed necessary or possible to distinguish exactly between government and administration. As each of the various types of organization is discussed, the pertinent facts under both of these headings will be considered.

¹ American Library Association *Bulletin*, VII (1913), 243.

² Tyler, *op. cit.*

II. TYPES OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION UNDER THE COUNCIL-MANAGER PLAN OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Contrary to what might perhaps have been anticipated, the actual status of the public library under council-manager government has been comparatively little changed. In only seven of the twenty-nine cities studied has the library been placed directly under the control of the manager. In two of these seven instances, the library board has been retained, and in a third a "Book Committee" of citizens has been given official standing and considerable power. In only two cases have existing boards actually been abolished.¹ In the other twenty-two cities analyzed, the library still remains wholly or largely independent from the administrative control of the manager, and its actual position in the municipal plan has been very little changed by the introduction of the manager form of government. The two main types of library government mentioned above,² the school-district library and the municipal library under a board, have been very persistent in American municipal history and have strongly resisted change.

It is probably true that the general uncertainty about the exact legal status of the library has been one important reason why few changes have been made in library organization. Of the five cities in which the library is most closely under managerial supervision, three are in California and two in Michigan. In the first of these states, municipal home rule has been broadly applied and interpreted;³ and the general state library law does not in practice govern in cities which have adopted home-rule charters containing provisions at variance with the state law.⁴ In Michigan, though the principle of home rule has been some-

¹ Jackson, Michigan, and Stockton, California.

² See above, p. 122.

³ Reed, *op. cit.*, p. 153.

⁴ For general principle involved, see H. L. McBain, *The Law and practice of municipal home rule* (1916), p. 676; also, New York (State) Home Rule Commission, *Second report* (1925), pp. 86-87. Very few home-rule charters in California, so far as the writer is aware, contain library provisions similar to those of the general state law; yet the charter provisions are followed in all cases.

what less sweepingly applied,¹ cities have apparently found no difficulty in placing the library under the control of the managers.² The establishment and maintenance of a public library is generally held, both by the leading authorities³ and by common practice, to be a municipal rather than a state function.

As a matter of fact, much uncertainty seems to exist as to where, theoretically, the library should be placed under the manager form of government. In none of the editions of the model charter of the National Municipal League, which provides for council-manager government, is the library specifically mentioned.⁴ In all editions it is suggested that the home-rule section of the state constitution should give municipalities the right "to organize and administer public schools and libraries, subject to the general laws of the state establishing a standard of education for the state."⁵ The model charter as actually drafted would leave the position of the public library in some doubt, owing to possible conflict with state laws, although it would probably be considered as a municipal department under control of the manager. Writers like Munro,⁶ Griffith,⁷ and Capes⁸ fail to show the library in their diagrammatic representation of the form of manager government.

Toulmin, in his volume *The City manager*,⁹ shows the public library in only one of the several charts he gives of the organization of the then existing manager cities. In this one instance, Springfield, Ohio, he shows the library board under control of the manager. Even as recent a book as Leonard D. White's *The City manager* does not show the library in its rather elaborate

¹ T. H. Reed and P. Webbink, *Documents illustrative of American municipal government* (1926), p. 462.

² McBain, *op. cit.*, p. 676.

³ J. F. Dillon, *Commentaries on the law of municipal corporations* (5th ed., 1911), I, 66; E. McQuillin, *Law of municipal corporations* (2d ed., 1928), I, 835.

⁴ National Municipal League, *A Model city charter* (editions of 1916, 1922, 1927).

⁵ *Ibid.* (1916), p. 11; (1922), p. 13; (1927), p. 8.

⁶ *Government of American cities* (4th ed., 1926), p. 262.

⁷ *Modern development of city government* (1927), I, 486.

⁸ *The Modern city and its government* (1923), facing p. 174.

⁹ *The City manager: A new profession* (1915), pp. 20, 21, 75, 88, 113.

diagram of the plan of organization in manager cities.² Joseph L. Wheeler, in *The Library and the community*, does not indicate the place of the library in the chart of municipal government shown.³ In the presumably official diagram published in the organ of the City Managers' Association,⁴ the public library is conspicuous by its absence.

Lacking any authoritative general guide as to the library's proper place in the municipal structure in manager cities, we may proceed to an analysis of the situation as actually found in the representative cities studied. Although this may not help us in determining where the library ought to be placed, it will, at least, show us where it actually is.

The position of the public libraries in the twenty-nine cities chosen for examination may be classified in a general way as follows:⁴

1. School district libraries (9)
 - a) Libraries directly under authority of board of education without separate library boards (4)
 - Indianapolis, Indiana (1929)
 - Kalamazoo, Michigan (1918)
 - Kansas City, Missouri (1926)
 - Wheeling, West Virginia (1917)
 - b) Libraries with separate library boards (5)
 - Bay City, Michigan (1921)
 - Cleveland, Ohio (1924)
 - Dayton, Ohio (1914)
 - Grand Rapids, Michigan (1917)
 - Springfield, Ohio (1914)
2. Municipal public libraries with independent library boards (9)
 - Berkeley, California (1923)
 - Cincinnati,⁵ Ohio (1926)
 - Fort Worth, Texas (1925)
 - Knoxville, Tennessee (1923)
 - Niagara Falls, New York (1916)

² Leonard D. White, *The City manager* (1927), p. 316.

³ 1924, p. 58 (taken from H. C. Hill, *Community life and civic problems*).

⁴ *Public management*, IX (1927), 282.

⁴ The date following the names of the various cities indicates the year in which manager government became effective.

⁵ Cincinnati has now been made a school-district library.

- Pasadena, California (1921)
- Roanoke, Virginia (1918)
- San Diego, California (1915)
- Wichita, Kansas (1921)
- 3. "Corporation" libraries under self-perpetuating boards (2)
 - Norfolk, Virginia (1918)
 - Portland, Maine (1923)
- 4. Libraries managed by non-governmental associations (2)
 - Miami, Florida (1921)
 - Portsmouth, Virginia (1917)
- 5. Municipal public libraries under control of city manager (7)
 - a) Without library boards (library strictly a municipal department) (5)
 - Jackson, Michigan (1915)
 - Long Beach, California (1921)
 - Pontiac, Michigan (1920)
 - Sacramento, California (1921)
 - Stockton, California (1923)
 - b) With library boards appointed by manager (2)
 - Oklahoma City, Oklahoma (1927)
 - Rochester, New York (1928)

The foregoing classification breaks up the "board" libraries into several groups; but it is worth noting that, taken together, they constitute by far the largest group. If to the nine municipal public libraries under independent boards are added the five school-district libraries under separate boards, the two corporation libraries under boards, the two libraries under boards appointed by the manager, and the two libraries managed by non-governmental organizations which act through committees essentially the same as boards, we have a total of twenty. Then, of course, there are the four libraries under the management of school boards which, in some cases, have library committees, leaving only the five libraries in group 5a which have absolutely no board connection.

Having thus broadly indicated the principal classes into which the public libraries in manager cities may be divided, we may now turn to a more detailed study of library administration in each of the various groups.

III. SCHOOL-DISTRICT LIBRARIES IN
COUNCIL-MANAGER CITIES

The school-district type of public library is defined as

a library which is established and maintained under the control of a school district, is supported by a tax levy on the property of the district or an appropriation from the general funds of the district, and serves all residents of the district. In purpose and in effect such a library is altogether similar to the municipal public library, except for the fact that the school district, rather than the city, town, township, or other political division, is the unit of support and service.¹

Often the school district is identical in area, or practically so, with the municipality.

The general statement may be made that the adoption of the manager plan of government has made no change whatever in the organization or administration of school-district libraries. The fact that education is pretty generally recognized as a state function² would seem to make it impossible for a city to take over a school-district library already established under the provisions of a general state law applying specifically to such school-district libraries. As a corollary, it is difficult to see how the manager could be given complete authority over these libraries. A school-district library might be disestablished by proper legal procedure and turned over to a city, or a city might establish a new public library distinct from the school-district library,³ but the charter provisions of the city would in no case affect the original school-district library.

School-district libraries may be divided into two classes: (1) those falling directly under the authority of the school board, and (2) those having a separate library board. Reference to the list of cities analyzed for the purpose of this study shows that four of them are found in the first group and five in the second.⁴

The place of the library in the scheme of municipal organiza-

¹ American Library Association, *Survey*, II (1926), 255.

² Of course a highly involved and complicated subject; consult McBain, *op. cit.*, and other authorities.

³ See case of Bay City, described on pp. 133-34.

⁴ See above, pp. 128-29.

tion in the four cities in which it is directly under the control of the school board is practically identical in all four instances. The main features of this plan are shown diagrammatically in Appendixes A and B. It should be pointed out that the revised school-district library law of Michigan makes it permissive for the school board in districts having a population of from 10,000 to 125,000 to appoint a separate library board to administer the public library.¹ This provision has not been taken advantage of in Kalamazoo.

In Indianapolis, Kansas City, and Kalamazoo the librarian is in no way subordinate to the superintendent of schools, but reports directly to the school board as head of the library system, just as the superintendent of schools reports to the board as head of the school system. In Wheeling the superintendent has some authority over the appointment of librarian and staff and also passes on the purchases of books and supplies, as does the business manager of the school board.²

The five cities in which the school-district libraries are managed by separate library boards are from two states only—Ohio and Michigan. The three Ohio cities (Cleveland, Dayton, and Springfield) are all organized under the general school-district library law of Ohio, which has since 1923 contained a provision making the appointment of a separate library board mandatory.³ The government of the libraries in these cities is not touched upon in the city charters, the general state law just cited being the basic authority for their organization in all cases.

Under the terms of this law, the library board is composed of seven members, serving for seven years each, one member going out of office annually. The library board is appointed by the board of education; but once appointed, it has very broad and complete power of management over the public library, including the custody and control of all libraries and all property, the expenditure of all library funds, the employment of librarians

¹ Michigan, *Public acts*, 1927, No. 319, c. 6, sec. 15, par. 1, p. 645.

² Information from answer to questionnaire.

³ American Library Association, *Survey*, I (1926), 17; A. H. Throckmorton (ed.), *General code of the state of Ohio* (2d ed., 1926), sec. 7635, p. 1907.

and assistants, and the general determination of library policies. As in the case of the first group studied, the library is not affected by civil-service regulations and does its own purchasing, both of books and supplies.¹

Generally speaking, this type of library is remarkably independent and has no complicating connection with the remainder of the municipal organization. Libraries organized under this plan are very definitely allied with the educational system, have their own tax levy, control their own funds absolutely, and seem to be quite separate from the entanglements of municipal politics.

Naturally, under such an organization, the library has no official connection with the city manager, who has no legal authority over the library in any sense. Cleveland reports that the effect on the library of the establishment of the manager plan "has been negligible, because the library is independent of the city. However, there has been a very friendly attitude toward the library on the part of the city manager and the city officials under him."² Of course, the library board may have dealings with the manager with regard to specific matters, as in the case of Springfield, where a building was donated to the city rather than to the library board, and hence negotiations were necessary between the manager, as chief executive of the city, and the library authorities.³

In the case of the two Michigan libraries in this group (Bay City and Grand Rapids), we find no general law applying as was true of the Ohio libraries; each is a special case governed by special charter and statutory provisions.

The Grand Rapids Public Library operates under a special state law which has been incorporated bodily into the city charter.⁴ The distinctive feature in the Grand Rapids organization is the election of five of the six members of the board of

¹ Information from answers to questionnaires and from statute cited.

² Information from answers to questionnaire.

³ Information from answers to questionnaire.

⁴ Michigan, *Local acts*, 1903, No. 401, pp. 291-93 (approved April 2, 1903); Charter, adopted August 29, 1916, Title XIII, pp. 58-60.

library commissioners for a term of five years by popular vote, a now rather uncommon practice in larger cities. The sixth member of the board is the superintendent of schools, who serves *ex officio*. The term of office of the board is five years, one member going out of office each year.

The board of library commissioners in Grand Rapids has "entire management and control of the library," with very broad powers, including the receiving of gifts and bequests. Its annual report is made to the city commission. In financial matters, its budgetary requests are subject to revision by the city commission, which is the final authority in the case of the budget. The city charter provides a compulsory minimum library tax of four-tenths of a mill, in addition to which the city commission adds a lump sum appropriation.¹ The library, also in accordance with the constitution of the state of Michigan,² receives the income from penal fines.

The library in Grand Rapids has no direct relations with the city manager except "by courtesy through his position." It does, however, co-operate voluntarily with the city purchasing agent in the purchase of certain supplies; but otherwise, all library purchasing is done independently.³

The Grand Rapids form of organization has proved highly satisfactory in actual practice. Relations between the board of library commissioners and the city commission have been most friendly, particularly since many of the commissioners have long been themselves users of the library.⁴

In Bay City we find an unusually complicated library situation, which need not be described here in detail. There are actually two public libraries, the most important of which is a school-district library, the other being a municipal library. In the interest of simplicity, the school-district library has been taken to represent the city.

Like Grand Rapids, the public library of Bay City was origi-

¹ Information from answers to questionnaire.

² Constitution of Michigan, 1908, art. XI, sec. 14.

³ Information from answers to questionnaire.

⁴ Information from answers to questionnaire.

nally established by a special local statute.¹ The city charter specially provides that this act and the amendments thereto shall remain in force and shall not be affected by the new charter.² The library is managed by a board of seven trustees, six of whom are appointed by the school board for a six-year term, one member going out of office each year. The seventh member is the president of the board of education, who serves *ex officio*. The library board is a corporate body, which may hold and convey property and has very broad powers. It reports annually directly to the city commission. There is no special tax levy for the library; it derives its funds directly from a lump sum appropriation by the city commission.³

The establishment of manager government has had little effect on the Bay City Public Library, except that the manager does pass on the budget prepared by the board.⁴ This is probably due to the general authority with regard to budget procedure given him by the charter.⁵ Other than in this one instance, the administration of the library has not been affected.⁶ There is no doubt that the library system of Bay City is badly in need of unification and that the present charter does not secure the desired unity.

It is obvious that the libraries in Grand Rapids and Bay City are more closely connected with the city government than is the case in the Ohio cities just described. Both of the Michigan cities make their annual reports to the city council and derive at least a portion of their income from appropriations by the council. In these respects, their relation to the municipal government is quite similar to that of the municipal public libraries managed by separate boards described in the next section (IV).

For full details of the organization and administration of the five public libraries in the group just considered, the reader is

¹ Michigan, *Local acts*, 1903, No. 514, c. 18, pp. 746-51.

² Charter effective April 4, 1921, art. XXV, sec. 5, p. 67.

³ Information from answers to questionnaire.

⁴ Information from answers to questionnaire.

⁵ Charter of Bay City, effective April 4, 1921, art. XVII, sec. 1, p. 33.

⁶ Information from answers to questionnaire.

referred to the summary tables and charts in Appendixes A and B.

We may sum up the library situation in all the cities in which the library is, legally, a school-district library, by repeating that council-manager government has made no essential change either in their government or administration. Similar types of libraries are to be found in cities under mayor and council government or under commission government. Most of these libraries are established under the authority of general state laws, and the remainder as school-district libraries under authority of special statutes of local application. They are all definitely allied with the educational system of the state and hence are largely matters of state, rather than of purely local, concern.

IV. MUNICIPAL PUBLIC LIBRARIES WITH INDEPENDENT LIBRARY BOARDS

In the nine cities in which we have classified the library as a municipal library operating under the control of an independent board of trustees, there is a very evident lack of uniformity in the details of organization and administration. A complete summary of the facts as found in each city is shown in the tables and diagrams given in Appendixes A and B.

The inclusion of the libraries of Cincinnati and Fort Worth in this group is perhaps somewhat questionable. The former is technically a county library and serves the whole of Hamilton County, being organized under the terms of a special state statute, applying to this one library only.¹ Essentially, however, it is the public library of the city of Cincinnati with certain added functions, and it therefore seems best to include it in this group.²

In Fort Worth, the library is actually one of the old type of "association" libraries, whose board of trustees is elected by the duly qualified members of the Fort Worth Public Library Association, life-membership in which may be obtained by the

¹ *Laws of Ohio*, XCIII (1898), 191-94.

² Since this was written, Cincinnati has become a school-district library of the Ohio type. Cf. Milton J. Ferguson, *American library laws* (1930), p. 818.

payment of one dollar. According to the city charter, these trustees (eight women and five men) must be confirmed by the council.¹ This provision and numerous others in the charter give the library at least a quasi-municipal status, and the injection of the Fort Worth Public Library Association into the legal framework makes little practical difference.

The situation in the nine cities in the group may be summarized by saying that the library has in general maintained its independence of direct control by the manager, and the library board has retained a sufficient amount of power to make its management of the library reasonably effective. The manager plan has had no fundamental effect on the situation; but, as compared to most library boards in school-district libraries, the boards in the cities now under consideration are considerably less independent and their powers are more limited. In other words, there has been an evident tendency to break down the barriers between library management and the city administration in general and to bring the library into somewhat closer connection with the other municipal departments. This has been done by exact charter provisions and possibly also by extra-legal action on the part of the managers, although such cases are difficult to discover without close acquaintance with the local situation. However, in one case, at least, the independent position of the library was strengthened by the adoption of the manager plan of government. This was in Berkeley, where, the clause, "The Board of Library Trustees shall have power to manage the public library," was inserted in the amended charter, thus stating definitely a principle which could only be inferred in the charter providing for commission government.²

The powers of the library boards in these cities are derived from state library laws, from city charters, and from city ordinances, in some cases from a combination of two or even three of these sources.³ In the three California cities (San Diego,

¹ Charter effective January 1, 1925, c. 17, secs. 1 and 2, p. 28.

² Charter, revised to 1923, art. VII, sec. 30, p. 28.

³ See tables in Appendix A.

Pasadena, and Berkeley) the well-established principle of home rule¹ makes the general state library law of no effect in case of conflict with the city charter, and requires a² specific charter provision to make the library organization clear. When this charter provision is incomplete or indefinite, it is then necessary to pass an ordinance outlining the powers of the library board in as much detail as the situation requires. This has actually been done in all three cities.³

Berkeley affords an interesting example of the survival of the board plan of library management under different forms of city government in a state where home rule is well established. Under the old mayor-council government, there was no charter, and the town was organized under general state laws with the library operating under the state library law. In 1909 the first freeholders' charter was adopted, establishing the commission form of government. In this charter, the public library was apparently overlooked, due to the assumption that the state library law would apply. Mention was, however, made of "five Library Trustees"⁴ and a special library tax was authorized.⁵ At first the trustees continued to exercise the full powers formerly allowed them under the state law. Before long, however, questions of authority began to develop. It was found, for instance, that the library board could not purchase property or select buildings by its own action, because this power was vested in the council by a general charter provision.⁶ In 1915 a comprehensive ordinance governing the library was passed by the council, in which as many of the provisions of the state library law as were not in conflict with the charter were incorporated.⁷ In 1923

¹ McBain, *op. cit.*, p. 676.

² Constitution of California, art. XV, sec. 8; see also comment in New York Home Rule Commission, *Second report* (1925), p. 86.

³ Information from answers to questionnaire.

⁴ Charter effective July 1, 1909, art. VII, sec. 30, p. 27.

⁵ *Ibid.*, art. X, sec. 58, p. 50.

⁶ *Ibid.*, art. IX, sec. 47, par. 1, p. 33.

⁷ Information from answers to questionnaire.

the charter was amended so as to provide for council-manager government. In this amended charter, the provision mentioned above,¹ that the board of library trustees was to "manage the library" was inserted, thereby greatly strengthening the independent position of the library.

Even here, however, further conflicts developed. As an example of the almost ludicrous confusion possible in a municipal charter, the provision requiring the countersigning of all municipal warrants by the city manager may be cited.² This provision, of course, was one of the many minor amendments necessary to put the manager plan into operation. It was construed to mean that all library warrants must be countersigned by the manager, although the charter authorized the board of library trustees to expend all moneys from the library fund and to approve all warrants. Thus the manager, although having no control over the Berkeley Public Library, is forced to countersign warrants concerning which he has no definite knowledge or responsibility.

In Cincinnati, Wichita, and Roanoke there are no charter provisions concerning the library. The library in Cincinnati, as already stated, is organized under a special statute; and Wichita³ and Roanoke⁴ are organized under the provisions of general state library laws. In Virginia the state library law simply authorizes the establishment of public libraries by cities. Therefore Roanoke has established its library by a comprehensive ordinance.⁵ In Knoxville, Niagara Falls, and Fort Worth the library is established under the provisions of the city charter. A few provisions of the original Niagara Falls charter (itself a local law) have been amended by later special legislation.⁶

¹ See p. 136.

² Charter, revised to 1923, art. X, sec. 61, p. 52.

³ *Revised statutes of Kansas*, 1923, pp. 89-91, 1401; also stated in answer to questionnaire.

⁴ *Code of Virginia*, 1919, c. 121, sec. 3074, Vol. I, p. 1209.

⁵ Ordinance No. 417, approved May 15, 1920.

⁶ E.g., secs. 294b, 294c, c. 530, *Laws of 1916*, are amended by c. 442, *Laws of 1917*.

The principal direction in which the municipal public libraries have lost power to the city manager and to the city government has been in the management of financial affairs. This statement does not apply to the provision for a special tax levy for library purposes, for we find a separate library levy in seven of the nine cities. Pasadena and Niagara Falls receive only a lump sum appropriation from the council.¹ In two cases, Wichita and Cincinnati, the library board actually makes the levy by its own action, subject to the limitations imposed by state laws.²

However, when we come to analyze budget procedure in these cities, we find the managers exercising really important powers over library funds in Knoxville, Niagara Falls, and Pasadena. In these cities he actually passes on the library budget, and makes definite recommendations as to reductions, etc., before submitting it to the council for final approval. There is no gain-saying the fact that the determination of the budget means to a large extent the determination of policy; so in these cities the manager actually has a substantial control over the destinies of the library. It should be noted also that in these three cases the library budget is made to conform to the standard municipal budget and that the usual library type of budget is, therefore, not followed.³

In Berkeley the manager does not pass on the budget in detail, but has presumed to recommend to the council, under his charter powers in this connection,⁴ what the library tax rate should be. In the spring of 1927 this precipitated a direct conflict between the manager and the library authorities, as the manager recommended cutting the usual tax levy of nine cents on the hundred dollars for library purposes to eight and a half cents. The council overruled the manager's recommendation and voted the nine-cent rate; but the manager at least had his

¹ See tables in Appendix A. Information from answers to questionnaires.

² Information from answers to questionnaires.

³ Information from answers to questionnaires.

⁴ Charter, revised to July, 1923, art. X, sec. 53, p. 49.

say, which was that he thought the library was getting too large a proportion of the municipal funds.¹

Another source of restriction of former library powers is found in the field of purchasing. In three cities—Knoxville, San Diego, and Pasadena—supplies for the library are purchased on requisition to the municipal purchasing department. There is also some voluntary co-operation in purchasing, as in the case of the purchase of coal in Roanoke and electric lamps in Berkeley.²

It is in the field of book-purchasing, however, that the librarian is most fearful of interference. In only one city in this group, Knoxville, are library books actually purchased by the municipal purchasing department, and here the library requisitions indicate the exact source from which books are to be purchased. This arrangement is not regarded by the library as economical, either in time or effort.³ In San Diego the charter provides that the purchasing agent shall purchase "all supplies used by the City."⁴ In order to allow the library to continue to purchase books independently, the subterfuge of appointing the librarian as "Second Assistant City Purchasing Agent" for books alone has been devised.⁵

Knoxville has also centralized all accounting procedure, including that of the library, in the hands of the finance department, where the library accounts are segregated according to the standard municipal classification. The library has solved this difficulty by keeping a simple duplicate set of accounts, which are classified according to what may be called the "standard library form."⁶

It is worthy of special mention that the library board, either directly or indirectly through the librarian, controls the ap-

¹ Writer was librarian of Berkeley Public Library at time mentioned.

² Information from answers to questionnaires.

³ Information from correspondence.

⁴ Charter, revised to 1923, art. II, sec. 2, par. b, p. 15.

⁵ Information from answers to questionnaires.

⁶ Information from correspondence and answers to questionnaire; see also J. A. Lowe, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

pointment of the staff of the library in all nine of these cities.¹ Salaries of the library staff are usually fixed by the board, the only exceptions being Berkeley and Pasadena, where the council fixes all municipal salaries.²

For full details regarding the organization and administration of these nine libraries, the reader is again referred to the summaries³ and tables⁴ in the appendixes.

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¹ See summaries of information in Appendix A.

² Charter of Berkeley, revised to July, 1923, art. VII, sec. 32, p. 29. Charter of Pasadena, amended to May 18, 1923, sec. 6, p. 54.

³ See Appendix A.

⁴ See Appendix A.

[To be continued in the July issue]

APPENDIX A
SUMMARY OF INFORMATION REGARDING PUBLIC
LIBRARIES IN THE TWENTY-NINE
MANAGER CITIES STUDIED

The information contained in this summary has been compiled from official sources and has been checked by questionnaires sent to the various cities. A question mark is used to indicate a few instances in which no data has been obtained or information which could not be exactly verified. The cities here analyzed are divided into the same groups as those listed in section II.¹

GROUP Ia

SCHOOL-DISTRICT LIBRARIES UNDER BOARDS OF EDUCATION

	Indianapolis	Kalamazoo	Kansas City	Wheeling
Legal organization of library under.....	Special statute for Indianapolis	State law for school-district libraries	School law of the state	State law of 1881
Librarian appointed by.....	Board of school commissioners	Board of education	Board of directors of school district	Board of education, on recommendation of superintendent
Library staff appointed by.....	Librarian, with formal approval of board	Librarian, with approval of board	Board, on recommendation of librarian	Same as librarian
Library salaries fixed by.....	Board of school commissioners	Board of education	Board, on recommendation of librarian	Board of education
Civil service.....	None	None	None	None
Annual report made to.....	Board of school commissioners	Board of education	Board of directors of school district	Board of education
Rules and regulations made by....	Same	Same	Same	Same
Tax levy for library	Special levy; no limit	No special levy; lump sum appropriation and penal fines	No special levy; lump sum appropriation	Special levy made by board of education; maximum, 3 cents on \$100
Library budget prepared by.....	Librarian	Librarian	Librarian	Business manager, board of education
Library budget approved by.....	Board of school commissioners; if protested, by state tax board	Board of education	Library committee of board; then by full board	Board of education
Does library budget conform to standard municipal budget?.....	No	No	No	No
Book purchases made by.....	Library (makes requisition to purchasing agent of board)	Library	Library	Library, approved by superintendent and business manager of board
Supply purchases made by.....	Same as above	Usually by library. Some supplies purchased through board	School purchasing agent & library requisition	"Library" supplies as above; other supplies by business manager of board

¹ See above, pp. 128-29.

GROUP 1b

SCHOOL-DISTRICT LIBRARIES UNDER LIBRARY BOARDS

	Cleveland	Dayton	Springfield	Bay City	Grand Rapids
Legal organization of library under	School-district library law of state	Same as Cleveland	Same as Cleveland	Charter and local act	Charter and local act
Library board appointed by	Board of education	Board of education	Board of education	Board of education	Elected by popular vote
Number of members	7	7	7	7, including superintendent of schools, ex officio	6, including superintendent of schools, ex officio
Term of office...	7 years	7 years	7 years	6 years	5 years
Librarian appointed by...	Library board	Library board	Library board	Library board	Library board
Library staff appointed by...	Under \$1,200 a year by librarian; others by board on recommendation of librarian	Librarian, with approval of board	Library board	Library board, on recommendation of librarian	Library board, on recommendation of librarian
Library salaries fixed by	Library board	Library board	Library board	City commission	Library board
Civil service...	None (library has own graded service)	None	None	None	None
Annual report made to	Board of education	Board of education	Board of education	City commission	City commission
Rules and regulations made by	Library board	Library board	Library board	Library board	Library board
Tax levy for library	Maximum, 1½ mills on dollar; no minimum	Same as Cleveland	Same as Cleveland	Lump sum appropriation	Compulsory minimum of ½ mill; lump sum in addition
Library budget prepared by...	Librarian	Librarian	Librarian	Librarian	Librarian and finance committee of Library board
Library budget approved by...	Library board and county budget commission	Library board, board of education, county budget commission	Same as Dayton	Library board, city manager, city commission	Library board, city commission
Does library budget conform to municipal budget?	No	No	No	No	No
Book purchases made by	Library	Library	Library	Library	Library
Supply purchases made by	Library	Library	Library	Library	Library

GROUP II

MUNICIPAL LIBRARIES WITH INDEPENDENT BOARDS

	Berkeley	Cincinnati	Fort Worth
Library organized by.....	Charter and ordinances	Special state law	Charter
Library board appointed by..	Council	1 by judges, court of common pleas, 2 by board of education, 2 by directors of University of Cincinnati, 2 by Union Board of High Schools	Elected by members of Fort Worth Library Association; confirmed by council
Number of members.....	5 (1 a member of council)	7	13 (8 women, 5 men)
Term of office.....	Pleasure of council	3 years	5 years
Librarian appointed by.....	Board	Board	Board
Library staff appointed by..	Board on recommendation of librarian	Board, on recommendation of librarian	Board
Library salaries fixed by....	Council	Board	Board
Civil service.....	None	None	None
Annual report made to.....	Council	Authorities appointing board	Board
Rules and regulations made by.....	Board	Board	Board
Tax levy for library.....	Separate levy; no limits; additional to all other taxes	Minimum, $\frac{1}{8}$ mill; maximum, $\frac{1}{4}$ mill; fixed by state law; levied by board	Minimum, 3 cents on \$100; council may appropriate additional sums
Library budget prepared by..	Librarian	Librarian	Librarian
Library budget approved by	Board, council	Board, county budget commission	Board
Does budget conform to standard municipal budget?.....	No	No	No
Book purchases made by....	Library	Library	Library
Supply purchases made by...	Library	Library	Library

GROUP II—Continued

	Knoxville	Niagara Falls	Pasadena
Library organized by.....	Charter	Charter, state laws	Charter, ordinance
Library board appointed by..	Council	Council	Chairman, city board of directors, approved by board
Number of members.....	9	5 (mayor and superintendent of schools, ex officio)	6 (chairman, city board of directors, ex officio)
Term of office.....	3 years	3 years	Pleasure of appointing authority
Librarian appointed by....	Board	Board	Chairman, board of city directors on recommendation of board
Library staff appointed by..	Librarian, with approval of board	Board	Same as above
Library salaries fixed by....	Board	Librarian and assistant librarian by council; others by board	City directors
Civil service.....	None	Librarian and assistant librarian; others exempt	None
Annual report made to....	Council	Council	Board
Rules and regulations made by.....	Board	Board	Board
Tax levy for library.....	Minimum, 3 cents on \$100; council may appropriate additional sums	None; lump sum appropriation	None; lump sum appropriation
Library budget prepared by..	Librarian	Librarian	Librarian
Library budget approved by	Board, manager, council	Board, manager, council	Board, manager, city directors
Does budget conform to standard municipal budget?.....	Yes	No	Yes
Book purchases made by....	Through city purchasing agent	Library	Library
Supply purchases made by..	Through city purchasing agent	Library	Through city purchasing agent

GROUP II—Continued

	Roanoke	San Diego	Wichita
Library organized by.....	State law, ordinance	Charter, ordinance	State laws
Library board appointed by..	Council	Council, approved by mayor	Mayor
Number of members.....	10 (superintendent of schools, one councilman, ex officio)	3	9 (mayor, ex officio)
Term of office.....	5 years	4 years	4 years
Librarian appointed by.....	Board	Board	Board
Library staff appointed by..	Board	Librarian, with approval of board	Board
Library salaries fixed by....	Board	Board	Board
Civil service.....	None	Librarian exempt; all others under civil service	None
Annual report made to.....	Council	Council	Mayor and commission
Rules and regulations made by.....	Board	Board	Board
Tax levy for library.....	Separate levy, additional to all other taxes; maximum of 1 mill fixed by state law	Minimum of 6 cents on \$100, additional to all other taxes	Limited by state law to $\frac{1}{4}$ mill; levied by board
Library budget prepared by	Librarian	Librarian	Board
Library budget approved by	Board, council	Board, council	Board
Does budget conform to standard municipal budget?.....	No	Yes	No
Book purchases made by....	Library	Library	Library
Supply purchases made by..	Library	Through city purchasing agent	Library

APPENDIX B

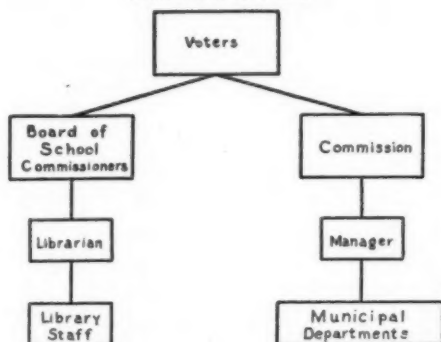
DIAGRAMS SHOWING THE PLACE OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY
IN THE ORGANIZATION OF THE TWENTY-NINE
MANAGER CITIES STUDIED

The diagrams here shown are arranged by groups according to the classification of cities listed in section II. No attempt has been made to show the complete organization of all municipal departments, but only to indicate the relation of the public library to the remainder of the city government.

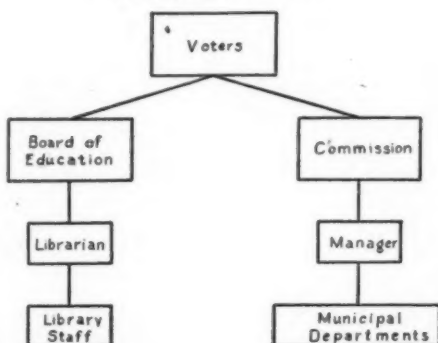
Unbroken lines are used to designate a direct line of authority, which is usually, though not always, accompanied by the power of appointment or election. Broken lines are used to indicate a relation of authority or service confined to a particular subject, which is described in the diagram.

GROUP Ia

INDIANAPOLIS

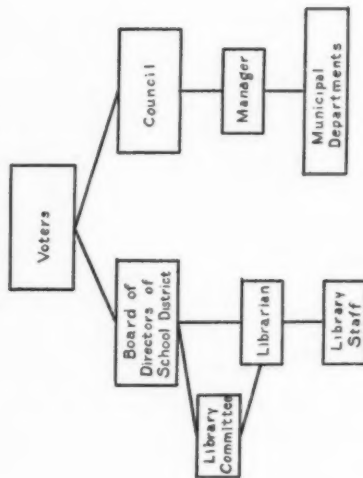


KALAMAZOO, MICH

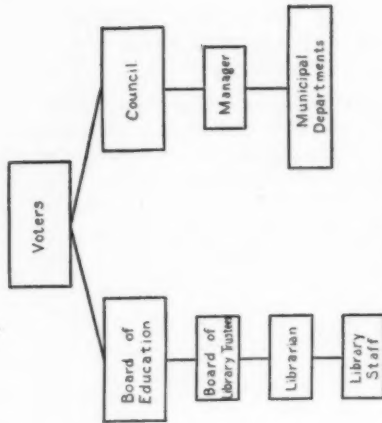


GROUP Ia—Cont.

KANSAS CITY, MO.

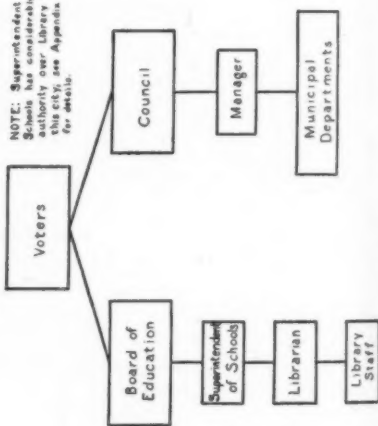


GROUP Ib
CLEVELAND, OHIO

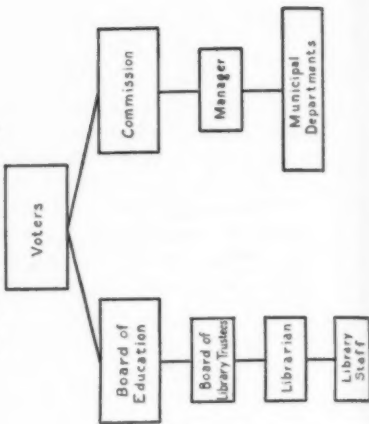


WHEELING, W. VA.

NOTE: Superintendent of Schools has considerable authority over Library in this city; see Appendix A for details.



DAYTON, SPRINGFIELD, OHIO

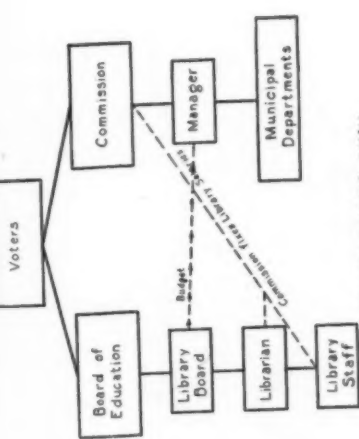


BAY CITY, MICH.

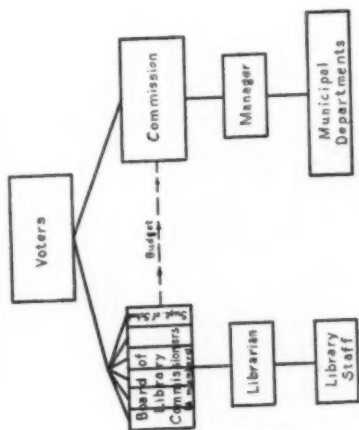
BERKELEY, CALIF.

Voters

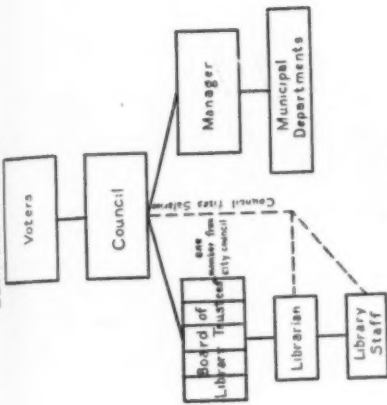
BAY CITY, MICH.



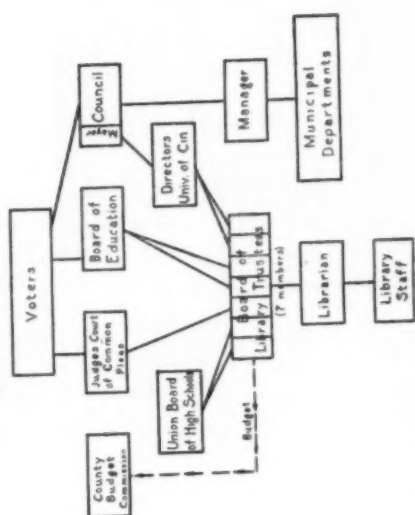
GRAND RAPIDS, MICH.



BERKELEY, CALIF.

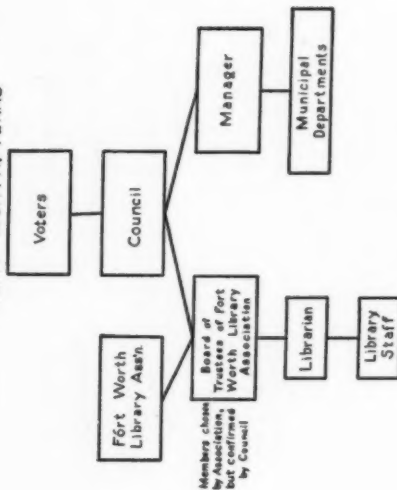


CINCINNATI, OHIO

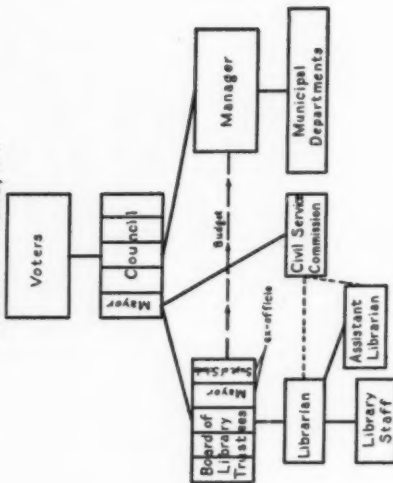


GROUP II—Cont.

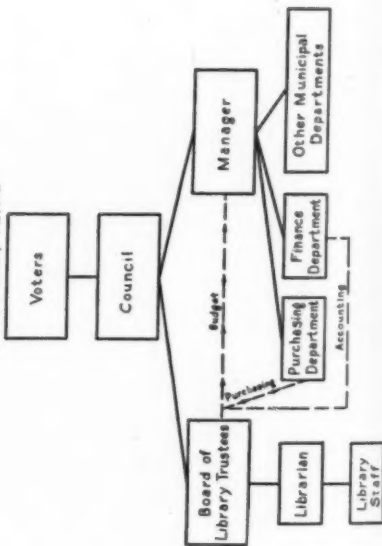
FORT WORTH, TEXAS



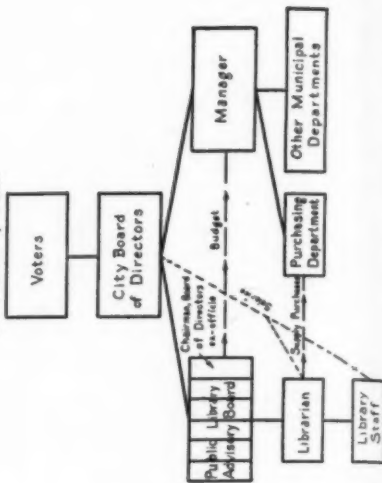
NIAGARA FALLS, N.Y.



KNOXVILLE, TENN.



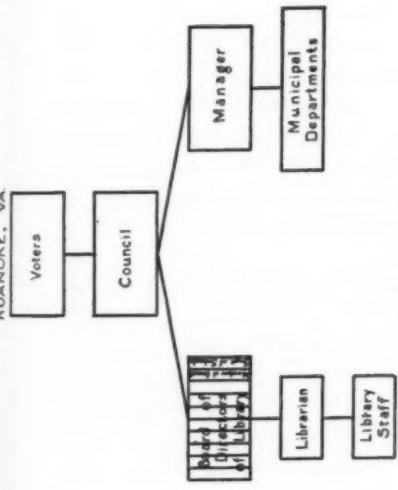
PASADENA, CALIF.



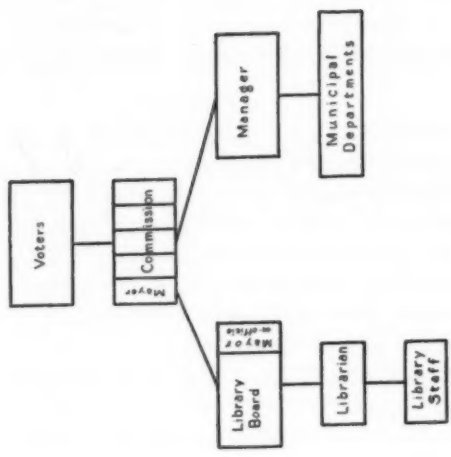
Library Staff

Library Staff

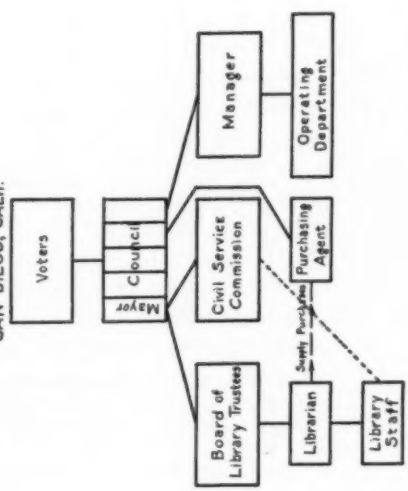
ROANOKE, VA.



WICHITA, KAN.



SAN DIEGO, CALIF.



CHILDREN AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY¹

I. PURPOSE

IN FEBRUARY, 1929, the California Library Association formed a committee of those interested in studies on child psychology related to library work.² At the first meeting of the committee it was voted that a subcommittee be appointed to work out plans for observing the recreational reading of children whose reading ages have been determined. Jasmine Britton, librarian of the Los Angeles City School Library, was made chairman of this subcommittee.³

Miss Britton immediately made plans for a preliminary study of the type of children who had recently obtained cards from the various branches. Such a study was carried out with the co-operation of Eva G. Leslie, principal of children's work in the Los Angeles Public Library, and the Psychology and Educational Research Division of the Los Angeles city schools.⁴

This study took into consideration the intelligence quotient and reading ability of the children; and, while nothing conclusive could be deduced from a first study and one so limited in size, it revealed a grouping of intelligence and a level of reading comprehension above normal. The results seemed to indicate that there are large numbers of children in the schools who are slow readers and mentally retarded and who do not use the public library.

As a check on the preliminary study, Miss Britton made arrangements for a much more extensive investigation. The purpose of the study reported herein is to present facts, as shown

¹ This investigation was made by Mr. Alfred S. Lewerenz, statistician of the Los Angeles city schools, at the request of a Committee of Psychologists, School Supervisors, and Librarians appointed by the Sixth District of the California Library Association.

² "The Child and the new psychology," *Libraries*, XXXV (1930), 117-20.

³ Faith E. Smith, "Committee of psychologists," *ibid.*, pp. 159-60.

⁴ Alfred S. Lewerenz, "Educational information concerning a sampling of 94 children who recently have become members of the Los Angeles Public Library," *Los Angeles educational research bulletin*, X (1930), 8-9.

by standardized tests, with regard to the mental ability and school accomplishment of a cross-section of children who are patrons of the branches of the Los Angeles Public Library.

II. METHOD

The same people who had helped in the first study took part in the second. Miss Leslie explained to representatives of the fifty library branches the purpose and method to be used. On a given date in the spring of 1930 at each of the libraries throughout the city the names were taken of the first twenty-five children who drew children's books on children's cards.

In addition, the name of the child's school was requested. The information for each child was recorded on a card that is used by the counselors in elementary schools when making educational surveys.

The 1,250 cards were then sent by Miss Leslie to the Psychology and Educational Research Division. Here the cards were sorted by schools and counselor districts. Each counselor was given the cards for pupils belonging in her district.

The counselors then proceeded to transfer the following information to the cards: (1) sex, (2) race, (3) actual grade placement, (4) chronological age, (5) mental age, (6) intelligence quotient, (7) chronological grade placement, (8) intelligence grade placement, (9) vocabulary grade placement, (10) reading grade placement, (11) reasoning in arithmetic grade placement, (12) fundamentals of arithmetic grade placement, (13) teacher's rating in reading, and (14) teacher's rating in arithmetic.

If a survey had been given recently, the information was used; otherwise new tests were given. All mental ages and mental grade placements were brought up to date by multiplying the intelligence quotient by the new chronological age. Subject grade placements were also all made as of June, 1930.

At the close of the school year in June the counselors returned the cards to the Psychology and Educational Research Division, where each was checked. The cards were then given to Miss E. Alice McNulty, in charge of the statistical section of the Division, who summarized the statistical data.

III. RESULTS

In summarizing data, comparisons with the previous study and with contrasting information should serve to clarify the meaning of the figures obtained.

A. *Number of cases.*—Each of the fifty branch libraries made out cards for 25 children drawing children's books on a given date, making the total possible number of cases 1,250. When the cards finally came in from the school counselors, the total had been reduced by 88, leaving 1,162 cases. Of this number, about 82 per cent were usable in the statistical study.

Of the incomplete returns, counselors reported that about 15 per cent of the children had moved, had been promoted to an-

TABLE I
NUMBER OF CASES

No.	Percentage	Classification
951	81.8	Public school with data
179	15.4	Public school without data
29	2.5	Parochial school without data
3	0.3	Military and other schools without data
1,162	100.0	

other school, were out sick, or had died. Approximately 2.5 per cent of the cases came from parochial schools. It was not possible to secure the necessary data for these children. The figures are as given in Table I.

While some data were supplied on 951 of the cases, the full number was not accounted for on any one item. The totals ranged all the way from 925, for actual grade placement, down to 490, for reasoning in arithmetic.

B. *Number of schools served by library branches.*—In this sampling of a typical day the number of schools being served by a branch ranged from one to fourteen. The median number of schools served by a branch was five. In many cases pupils seem to prefer a distant branch to the one near the school. Table II shows the distribution of schools served. This table should be

read as follows: two branches served fourteen schools; one branch, eleven schools; two, ten schools; two, nine schools; etc.

Approximately 174 different public schools are included in the distribution. This fact indicates that the cases represent a fair sampling of the entire city.

C. Intelligence level of the schools represented.—For many schools there is available the average I.Q. of the entire population. The intelligence level of schools was compared with the number of children each school had among the library patrons.

TABLE II
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS SERVED BY LIBRARY BRANCHES

No. of Branches	No. of Schools	No. of Branches	No. of Schools
2	14	7	4
1	11	7	3
2	10	1	2
2	9	3	1
2	8	1	No data
6	7		
7	6	Total 50	
9	5		

A positive relationship was discovered between the I.Q. level of a school and the number of children reported by librarians as coming from that school. For example, not a single child was reported as coming from any one of the twelve development centers attended by more than seventeen hundred subnormal children whose average I.Q. is approximately 63.¹

The schools were ranked according to the number of children each contributed to the study. It was found which schools had sent no pupils, which schools sent 1 pupil each, 2 pupils each, 3 pupils each, etc. The largest number of pupils coming from any one school was 27. From schools for which intelligence data were available, three groups of ten schools each were selected. The intelligence level of a school was determined by averaging

¹ M. Frances Martin, "Development centers and rooms," *Third yearbook*, Psychology and Educational Research Division, Los Angeles City School District (1929), pp. 71-90.

the I.Q.'s of its pupils. The first group consisted of ten schools reporting no pupils; the second, of ten schools which had each reported one pupil; and the third, of the ten schools that had sent the most pupils. This last group, on the average, had been represented by 21 pupils each.

The average I.Q. of the ten schools in each of the three groups was then found as shown in Table III. The median city-wide I.Q. is approximately 100.¹ It will be seen that schools not contributing library-users have a population distinctly below average; while schools sending the most pupils were, on the average, well above median intelligence.

TABLE III
AVERAGE I.Q. OF SCHOOLS CONTRIBUTING
MOST AND FEWEST PUPILS

Average Library Attendance	Average I.Q.
0 pupils	90.3
1 pupil	100.4
21 pupils	105.0

The schools contributing pupils to the study were studied also from another angle. Instead of distributing the schools by the number of children represented by each, the schools were segregated by I.Q. level. Thus, all schools with an average I.Q. between 115 and 119 were put in one group; those with an I.Q. between 110 and 114 in another; and so on down. Then the average number of pupils contributed by each of these I.Q. groups was found. Table IV gives the figures; and, at the right of the table, a graph shows the pupil averages to the nearest whole number.

Table IV does not include all the schools covered by the study, as average I.Q. levels are not available in all cases. The sampling, however, seems sufficiently large (246 schools) to warrant consideration of the trend indicated in the graph at the right of the table. It will be noted that, as the I.Q.'s of the schools decrease, the number of pupils contributed decreases

¹ Willis W. Clark, "Differences in accomplishment in schools of varying average I.Q.," *Los Angeles educational research bulletin*, VI (1927), 13-16.

also. This fact is significant in the light of the information concerning the pupils themselves which appears later in this report.

As pointed out earlier, the average I.Q. for the city is 100. However, it will be noted that the most pupils in any one group come from schools with an average I.Q. between 105 and 109. The median pupil also comes from this group.

The facts presented in Tables III and IV may be attributed to either one or both of two causes: (1) the public library may not have branches which serve sections of the city inhabited by

TABLE IV
AVERAGE NUMBER OF PUPILS COMING TO LIBRARIES,
BY I.Q. LEVEL OF THEIR SCHOOLS

Average School I.Q.	No. of Schools	No. of Pupils	Pupil Average	Pupil Average Graph
115-19.....	5	45	9.0	XXXXXXXXXX
110-14.....	18	120	6.7	XXXXXXXXXX
105-9.....	58	327	5.6	XXXXXXXXXX
100-104.....	73	296	4.1	XXXXX
95-99.....	39	87	2.2	XX
90-94.....	16	49	3.1	XXXX
85-89.....	22	35	1.6	XX
84 and below.....	15	8	0.5	X
Total.....	246	967		

a population of subnormal mentality; or (2) children of less-than-normal intelligence have a tendency to find little that interests them at the public library. In the light of additional information in this and other studies,¹ it would seem that the second cause is probably the more important, though undoubtedly both contribute to the tendency noted.

The data so far have concerned schools and branch libraries as units. The following data are based upon the child as the unit, and the figures represent information secured by the elementary-school counselors.

Mention has been made of the preliminary study which was based on 94 cases.² The technique used in both studies was

¹ Reported later.

² See footnote 4, p. 152.

much the same. The main difference was that in the first instance children were those registering to become members while in the second the cases were children actually drawing children's books. The latter method serves better to select children who are actual patrons of the library. The two criteria, however, are probably sufficiently similar to permit the comparison of both groups on similar items.

D. *Number of pupils by grades.*—There were 925 cases for which the actual grade placement of the child was known.

TABLE V
NUMBER OF PUPILS DRAWING BOOKS, ACCORDING
TO THEIR GRADE IN SCHOOL

Grade	No. of Pupils	Percentage
I.....	8	0.9
II.....	48	5.2
III.....	134	14.5
IV.....	176	19.0
V.....	200	21.6
VI.....	214	23.1
VII.....	74	8.0
VIII.....	44	4.8
IX.....	25	2.7
X.....	1	0.1
XI.....	0	0.0
XII.....	1	0.1
Total.....	925	100.0

While the original plan was to base the study on elementary schools alone, actually there were children secured in the sampling from the first through the twelfth grades. No special significance can be attached to the figures given in the lower part of Table V, since these children came to the section of the library intended for younger children. However, it is interesting to note that the children's section appeals most to pupils in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, with the largest percentage of children, 23.1 per cent, occurring in the sixth grade. The median child was found to be a beginning V A pupil. By the time children reach the third grade they are beginning to use the library in relatively large numbers.

Relatively few children come to the children's section after they have passed the eighth grade; in fact, there is a big falling-off after the sixth grade, when many of the pupils are transferred to junior high school. This decrease is explained in part by the use of junior high school libraries and the adult section of the public library.

In the preliminary study the main difference was noticed in the third grade. Of the children sampled at that time, third-

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND GIRLS USING LIBRARIES, BY GRADES
TOTALS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS SEPARATELY

Grade	Boys (Per Cent)	Girls (Per Cent)	Difference (Per Cent)
I.....	1.0	0.8	0.2
II.....	5.3	5.1	0.2
III.....	14.8	14.2	0.6
IV.....	18.2	19.7	-1.5
V.....	20.6	22.4	-1.8
VI.....	21.2	24.8	-3.6
VII.....	9.2	7.0	2.2
VIII.....	6.3	3.5	2.8
IX.....	3.2	2.3	0.9
X.....	0.0	0.2	-0.2
XI.....	0.0	0.0	0.0
XII.....	0.2	0.0	0.2
Total.....	100.0	100.0	0.0

graders most frequently applied for membership. Otherwise the tendencies were the same, including the large number of sixth-graders. The figures indicate that nearly two-thirds of the readers are included in grades IV, V, and VI.

E. *Sex by grades.*—More girls than boys drew books from the children's section: there were 513 girls and 412 boys. This means that there were only about 80 per cent as many boys drawing books as there were girls. This is almost exactly the same ratio found for boys and girls applying for membership in the preliminary study. The distributions in Table VI are given in percentages for purposes of comparison.

Table VI reduces both groups to a common denominator and

is useful in comparing the number of boy and girl patrons, assuming equal populations.

It will be noted that the girls in the first, second, and third grades do not come to the library quite as much as the boys, there being a difference of about 1 per cent. However, in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades the girls read relatively more than the boys. Here the difference in favor of the girls amounts to nearly 7 per cent. The biggest difference in the patronage of

TABLE VII
RATIO OF BOYS AND GIRLS BY GRADES, USING TOTAL FOR
BOYS AND GIRLS TOGETHER AS A BASE

Grade	Boys (Per Cent)	Girls (Per Cent)	Difference (Per Cent)
I.....	0.4	0.4	0.0
II.....	2.4	2.8	-0.4
III.....	6.6	7.9	-1.3
IV.....	8.1	10.9	-2.8
V.....	9.2	12.5	-3.3
VI.....	9.4	13.8	-4.4
VII.....	4.1	3.9	0.2
VIII.....	2.8	1.9	0.9
IX.....	1.4	1.3	0.1
X.....	0.0	0.1	-0.1
XI.....	0.0	0.0	0.0
XII.....	0.1	0.0	0.1
Total.....	44.5	55.5	-11.0

boys and girls in the children's section seems to come in the sixth grade. In actual number of cases there were only 69 per cent as many boys drawing books as there were girls. Then, in Grade VII and above, the boys draw relatively more children's books, as shown by an approximately 6 per cent difference. This fact is consistent with the facts concerning the earlier adolescence of girls. The column at the right shows the difference in percentage for each grade, using the percentage for girls as a basis.

To help explain the foregoing tendencies, the data are presented in another form (Table VII). This time the boys and girls in each grade are given in percentages of the total for both

boys and girls. The other table gave the percentage of boys in each grade for the total number of boys and the same for the girls.

It will be seen that, of the combined total for both boys and girls, the former amounted to 44.5 per cent and the latter to 55.5 per cent. The same estimate for the preliminary study was also found, and is given in Table VIII for comparison. Both studies yielded approximately the same preponderance of girl readers.

Table VII permits a comparison of boys and girls in the various grades by actual numbers. It will be observed that in the first grade each sex is represented by 0.4 per cent. From Grade

TABLE VIII
PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND GIRLS OF TOTAL FOR PRELIMINARY
AND FOLLOW-UP STUDIES

Study	Boys (Per Cent)	Girls (Per Cent)	Total (Per Cent)
Preliminary	45.7	54.3	100.0
Follow-up.....	44.5	55.5	100.0

II through Grade VI there is a steady increase in numbers. Then there is a decided dropping-off in the number of girls in the children's section. Thus, while in all there were only about 80 per cent as many boys as girls drawing books, the boys were approximately as numerous as the girls in all grades but II to VI.

Tables VI and VII seem to indicate, with respect to the children included in this study, that: (1) girls are more inclined to draw books from the library than are boys; (2) girls display a faster development in reading interest than do boys; (3) both boys and girls reach the peak of their reading of children's books in the sixth grade; and (4) girls show a faster decrease in the reading of children's books after the sixth grade.

F. *Racial groups represented.*—Many pupils of foreign extraction were included in the study. Data as to race were given on 870 cards, and Table IX shows the distribution of races in terms

of percentage of that total. The second column shows the percentages according to the census cards tabulated during the registration of minors in Los Angeles in October, 1927.¹ The percentage of minors probably is the best available estimate of the proportions of each racial group in our schools.

The third column to the right shows how the racial groups in the library study differed from the numbers revealed during the registration of minors. The largest difference is that of the Mexicans, who are represented at the library by but a little more than a third of their actual proportion. The Japanese, on the

TABLE IX
RACIAL GROUPS IN TERMS OF PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL

Race	Library Study (Per Cent)	Registration of Minors (Per Cent)	Difference (Per Cent)
White.....	86.0	80.8	5.2
Japanese.....	4.9	3.0	1.9
Mexican.....	4.9	13.0	-8.1
Negro.....	2.7	2.5	0.2
Chinese.....	0.2	0.3	-0.1
Other.....	1.3	0.4	0.9
Total.....	100.0	100.0	0.0

other hand, had half again as many representatives as their actual proportion would predict. There were slightly more negroes than might have been anticipated by the census figures. Lastly, the white library patrons formed a 5 per cent larger group than they do in the schools. These facts may be interpreted to mean: (1) branch libraries may be placed where they favor white, Japanese, and negro children to the detriment of Mexican children; or (2) children of white, Japanese, and negro stock have a greater interest in reading materials supplied by branch libraries than do children of Mexican parentage; or (3) a combination of items 1 and 2.

G. *Chronological grade placement.*—There were 919 cases for which both actual grade and chronological grade placements

¹H. A. Whiteneck, "Registration of minors," *Los Angeles educational research bulletin*, VII (1928), 15-16.

were recorded. Table X gives the average chronological grade placement for the children in each grade. The center column gives the norm for each grade, while the right-hand column shows the deviation from the norm in tenths of a school year, i.e., 0.1 = one month, 0.2 = 2 months, etc.

Only the grades represented by 25 or more cases are shown, since a smaller number does not yield a sufficiently reliable average. This elimination removes 9 cases, making the total for the table 910.¹

TABLE X
AVERAGE CHRONOLOGICAL GRADE
Placement by Actual Grade

Grade	Average	Norm	Deviation from Norm (Years)
II.....	2.5	2.6	-0.1
III.....	3.6	3.6	0.0
IV.....	4.6	4.6	0.0
V.....	5.4	5.6	-0.2
VI.....	6.3	6.6	-0.3
VII.....	7.2	7.6	-0.4
VIII.....	7.9	8.6	-0.7
IX.....	8.6	9.6	-1.0
Weighted average for all grades.....			-0.24

The children secured in the sampling were, on the average, nearly two and a half months younger than expectation. This means that these cases were accelerated in comparison to the usual run of students.

In the second grade the children were one month under age. In the third and fourth grade the library study pupils were just at norm. Beginning with the fifth grade, the pupils gradually become more and more accelerated. Though grades above the ninth were eliminated, because of fewness of numbers, this increase in the deviations continues.

It begins to be apparent that the students going to the children's section of the library are not quite the same as the gen-

¹ The number of pupils per grade in this and the two following tables approximates that given in Table V.

eral mass of school population. From Grade V and up they are considerably younger than their schoolmates. The following tables will help to explain the reason for this difference in ages.

H. *Mental grade placement.*—Mental grade placements and actual grade placements were given on 897 cards. However, as in the previous tables, grades were eliminated where there were less than 25 pupils represented. In this case the total was reduced to 889. In Table XI, as in Table X, the norm for the grade is given and likewise the deviations from this norm in terms of tenths of a school year.

TABLE XI
AVERAGE MENTAL GRADE PLACEMENT BY ACTUAL GRADE

Grade	Average	Norm	Deviation from Norm (Years)
II.....	3.1	2.6	0.5
III.....	4.0	3.6	0.4
IV.....	5.0	4.6	0.4
V.....	6.1	5.6	0.5
VI.....	7.6	6.6	1.0
VII.....	8.3	7.6	0.7
VIII.....	9.3	8.6	0.7
IX.....	10.5	9.6	0.9
Weighted average for all grades.....			0.60

Library patrons mentally are more mature than their companions in the same grade. This difference in intelligence level has a tendency to increase as the children grow older. The smallest difference in a grade was four months, while the largest was one year.

One reason why library patrons are able to compete in school with older pupils is apparently that they are mentally more mature. On the average, the library pupils are six months older in mental age.

I. *Intelligence-quotient distribution.*—The ratio between mental maturity and chronological age is expressed by the intelligence quotient. On the average, the I.Q. of the school children of Los Angeles is approximately 100. The I.Q. distribution of the

children in the library study was distinctly above normal, the average being 108. This figure is even higher than the average found for the preliminary study, which was 106. Table XII indicates the common tendency for children in the upper grades to show higher I.Q.'s than those in the lower grades. Thus the lowest average, 105, is found in the fourth grade, while the highest average, 117, is found in the ninth grade. This average I.Q. is exceeded by only 10 per cent of the city schools, and is not reached by 90 per cent.¹

TABLE XII
INTELLIGENCE OF LIBRARY READERS BY GRADES

Grade	Average I.Q.	Grade	Average I.Q.
II.....	109	VI.....	111
III.....	106	VII.....	108
IV.....	105	VIII.....	110
V.....	108	IX.....	117
Weighted average I.Q. for all grades.....			108

Apparently the library tends to draw children from among the more intelligent groups.

A second distribution of intelligence quotients was made by 10-point intervals of I.Q. This permits a more detailed study of the group as a whole. The material is given in Table XIII. Adjacent to the data for the library study are given the figures for the city schools as a whole.² In the right-hand column are given the deviations of the library study percentages from those found for the city.

While Table XIII lends support to the idea that pupils above the average in intelligence tend to go to the library, correlations show that there is not a high relationship between intelligence and library attendance.

The foregoing tables reveal that the library patrons had among their number fewer pupils with an I.Q. below 109 than

¹ Willis W. Clark, "Differences in accomplishment in schools of varying average I.Q.," *Los Angeles educational research bulletin*, VI (1927), 13-16.

² Ellen A. McNulty, "Distribution of intelligence in the Los Angeles elementary schools," *ibid.*, VIII (1929), 6-8.

is usual in the schools, while there were more than usual with I.Q.'s 110 or above.

It will be observed that there are only one-thirteenth as many pupils in the library study with I.Q. below 70 as are in school. On the other hand, there are more than three times as many library cases of I.Q. 140 and above than in the typical school population.

TABLE XIII
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF I.Q.'s

Interval	Library Study (Per Cent)	City Schools (Per Cent)	Difference (Per Cent)
Below 70.....	0.3	3.9	-3.6
70-79.....	2.9	7.5	-4.6
80-89.....	7.9	15.1	-7.2
90-99.....	17.7	21.7	-4.0
100-109.....	23.6	24.0	-0.4
110-119.....	24.8	17.1	7.7
120-129.....	13.8	7.5	6.3
130-139.....	6.1	2.4	3.7
140.....	2.9	0.8	2.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	0.0

Bi-serial $r=0.2860$ Pearson's cosine $r=0.2924$

For some reason pupils of low I.Q. failed to appear at the various branches at the time the sampling was secured. On the other hand, the bright children went there in numbers exceeding their actual proportion to the school population.

The following five sections deal with results gained from standardized tests in vocabulary, reading comprehension, arithmetic reasoning, and arithmetic fundamentals. This material is presented by grades in comparison to norm. In addition, at the bottom of each table is given the average amount the group is above or below norm, and also the same figure for children in schools throughout the city of approximately the same intelligence. The latter figures are based on data from more than 100 schools where the average I.Q. is approximately 105.¹ The latter averages, of course, are higher than those for the entire city.

¹ Willis W. Clark, "Elementary school surveys with standardized tests, 1928-1929," *Third yearbook*, Psychology and Educational Research Division, Los Angeles City School District (1929), pp. 9-22.

As in previous tables, no averages for a grade are given unless represented by 25 or more cases.

J. *Vocabulary grade placements by grades.*—Vocabulary grade placements are available for 709 cases, of which 680 cases are represented in Table XIV.

In knowledge of words the library study children were not only more than five months above norm but they were also more than four months above the accomplishment of a nearly comparable group made up of the children of 100 schools with

TABLE XIV
VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE BY GRADES

Grade	Average	Norm	Deviation from Norm (Years)
II.....	3.1	2.6	0.5
III.....	3.9	3.6	0.3
IV.....	5.1	4.6	0.5
V.....	6.2	5.6	0.6
VI.....	7.4	6.6	0.8
VII.....	8.2	7.6	0.6
VIII.....	8.3	8.6	0.2
Weighted average for all grades.....			0.54
Average for nearly similar pupils.....			0.13

an average I.Q. of 105. In fact, the library study pupils were among the highest 15 per cent of the 100 schools in vocabulary achievement.

While the data for the two groups are not exactly similar, they are sufficiently alike to suggest that the library readers excel other children of about the same mental level in a knowledge of words.

K. *Reading-comprehension grade placements.*—Tests in ability to gather meaning from the printed page were available for 851 children. Because of small numbers in certain grades, only 816 cases are represented in Table XV. At the bottom of this table is a comparison from a study made in 1926.¹

The reading-comprehension level of library study pupils was

¹ Willis W. Clark, "Differences in accomplishment in schools of varying average I.Q.," *Los Angeles educational research bulletin*, VI (1927), 13-16.

almost half a school year above norm. Likewise, they were farther advanced in reading than were pupils of about the same mental ability. It would seem that either good readers go to the library or the library makes good readers. However, since we have seen selection going on in the matter of age and intelligence, it may be safe to assume that selection also plays a large part in the matter of reading accomplishment. Children who are not good readers probably have a tendency to shun the library.

TABLE XV
READING COMPREHENSION BY GRADES

Grade	Average	Norm	Deviation from Norm (Years)
II.....	3.0	2.6	0.4
III.....	4.0	3.6	0.4
IV.....	4.9	4.6	0.3
V.....	6.1	5.6	0.5
VI.....	7.2	6.6	0.6
VII.....	8.2	7.6	0.6
VIII.....	9.3	8.6	0.7
Weighted average for all grades.....			0.47
Average for nearly similar pupils.....			0.09
Average for schools with I.Q. average 105-9.....			0.39

L. *Fundamentals of arithmetic grade placements.*—The test in fundamentals of arithmetic is used to find out how much a child knows about the essential facts of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Records were available for 524 cases, of which 490 are represented in Table XVI.

As in reading comprehension, the library study pupils were more than four months above norm in ability to solve arithmetic problems. They were also about two months higher than were the pupils in comparable groups.

M. *Reasoning in arithmetic grade placements.*—The test in reasoning in arithmetic is a combination of the ability to read and to solve problems. Grade placements were received for 618 cases. Table XVII is based on 604 cases.

For the first and only time the library study pupils are below

norm. They are approximately two and a half months below norm in reasoning in arithmetic. However, the comparable group is still farther down, as the children in it are more than three months retarded.

TABLE XVI
FUNDAMENTALS OF ARITHMETIC BY GRADES

Grade	Average	Norm	Deviation from Norm (Years)
III.....	3.9	3.6	0.3
IV.....	4.9	4.6	0.3
V.....	6.1	5.6	0.5
VI.....	7.4	6.6	0.8
VII.....	7.6	7.6	0.0
Weighted average for all grades.....			0.43
Average for nearly similar pupils.....			0.21
Average for schools with I.Q. average 105-9.....			0.27

TABLE XVII
REASONING IN ARITHMETIC BY GRADES

Grade	Average	Norm	Deviation from Norm (Years)
III.....	3.1	3.6	-0.5
IV.....	4.3	4.6	-0.3
V.....	5.3	5.6	-0.3
VI.....	6.6	6.6	-0.0
VII.....	7.6	7.6	-0.0
VIII.....	8.3	8.6	-0.3
Weighted average for all grades.....			-0.25
Average for nearly similar pupils.....			-0.33

It is believed that the city as a whole is below norm in reasoning in arithmetic. An estimate places the amount of retardation at 0.4 of a year, or about four school months. The library cases were but 0.25 of a year retarded, a difference of a month and a half.

The last of four sections have dealt with measures of subject achievement based on objective tests. As a check on these meas-

ures, teachers' judgment was also utilized. Counselors had teachers rate pupils in reading and arithmetic. They were classified as being "Good," "Fair," or "Poor." Summaries were made of these data which have been contrasted with similar data taken from cards of unselected children in typical schools. Library facilities were available for these typical children in the control group. In one case there is a branch just across the street.

N. *Teachers' ratings on reading.*—Table XVIII presents the ratings on reading given by teachers to pupils of the library study and to unselected pupils in typical schools. The percentages are based on 565 library cases and 815 typical cases.

TABLE XVIII
TEACHERS' RATINGS FOR READING

Rating	Library Children (Per Cent)	Unselected Children (Per Cent)	Deviation (Per Cent)
Good.....	60.9	35.1	25.8
Fair.....	30.1	46.6	-16.5
Poor.....	9.0	18.3	-9.3
Total.....	100.0	100.0	0.0

It will be seen that there were almost once again as many Good readers among the library cases as there were in the unselected group, according to teachers' estimates. Likewise, the library patrons were noticeably fewer who received ratings of Fair and Poor.

O. *Teachers' ratings on arithmetic.*—Ratings on arithmetic were turned in for 240 cases, and these have been contrasted with 823 cases of unselected ratings (Table XIX).

According to the teachers' ratings, the library cases turn out to be considerably better in arithmetic than are unselected cases. There are half again as many library children who were marked Good as compared with typical cases. On the other hand, only half as many library cases were marked Poor in arithmetic.

P. *Summary of previous survey data.*—There were 179 cases for which the counselors were unable to supply data. These cards were checked with records of past surveys. Data were

TABLE XIX
TEACHERS' RATINGS FOR ARITHMETIC

Rating	Library Children (Per Cent)	Unselected Children (Per Cent)	Deviation (Per Cent)
Good.....	59.5	38.9	20.6
Fair.....	31.3	41.2	- 9.9
Poor.....	9.2	19.9	-10.7
Total.....	100.0	100.0	0.0

found for but 12 cases, a number so small as to be of little value. However, it is given for what it is worth, as it presents one more approach to determining what kind of children are library patrons. The children in Table XX are not included in previous tables and were tested several years ago.

TABLE XX
SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS SURVEY DATA

Item	Average	Norm	Deviation from Norm (Years)
Chronological grade placements.....	4.4	4.2	0.2
Mental grade placements.....	5.1	4.2	0.9
Intelligence quotient.....	110.6	100.0	10.6
Vocabulary grade placements.....	5.6	4.2	1.4
Reading grade placements.....	5.3	4.2	1.1
Arithmetic-fundamentals grade placements	4.4	4.2	0.2
Arithmetic-reasoning grade placements....	4.0	4.2	-0.2

The averages given above are not of themselves reliable, but they nevertheless show the same tendencies found in the other investigations. The children are accelerated chronologically, are superior mentally, and are above norm in all their academic subjects except reasoning in arithmetic. In this last subject they are still above the standard set by the city as a whole.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

A study has been made of the type of child that draws children's books from the branches of the Los Angeles Public Library. In all, there were 1,162 cases for which there was some information. Objective test data for intelligence and scholastic achievement were secured for 951 children. A summary of this information yields the following conclusions:

A. Of the readers sampled, 97.2 per cent were children from the public schools, 2.5 per cent were from parochial schools, and 0.3 per cent were from military or other private schools.

B. There was considerable variation in the number of schools served by library branches. Two branches had patrons coming from as many as fourteen different schools, while there were three branches that each had pupils coming from one school. The median number of schools served by a branch was five.

C. There was a noticeable relationship between the intelligence level of a school and the number of pupils contributed. Ten schools that had no children represented had an average I.Q. of 90.3; ten schools that sent 1 pupil each averaged 100.4 I.Q.; and ten schools that averaged 21 pupils each had an average I.Q. of 105. Not a single child was reported as coming from any of the twelve development centers for subnormal children.

D. There was likewise a noticeable relationship between the average I.Q. of schools and the number of pupils patronizing the libraries. Schools with an average I.Q. of 115-19 averaged 9 patrons each. The number of pupils decreased until schools with I.Q. 84 and below averaged less than 1 pupil each. The median number of pupils came from schools with an I.Q. average of 105-9. The average I.Q. for the city is approximately 100.

E. There is a gradual increase in the drawing of children's books until the sixth grade, after which there is a rapid falling-off in patrons. Nearly two-thirds of the readers were included in grades IV, V, and VI.

F. There were only about 80 per cent as many boys drawing books as there were girls.

G. Girls displayed a faster development in reading interest than did boys.

H. Both boys and girls reached the peak of their reading of children's books in the sixth grade.

I. Girls evidenced a faster decrease in the reading of children's books after the sixth grade.

J. In comparison to the general school population, whites, Japanese, and negroes read children's books above expectation. There was but one-third as many Mexicans represented as their actual population warranted.

K. The library cases were, on the average, nearly two and a half months younger than expectation. Beginning with the fifth grade, the children gradually became more and more accelerated chronologically.

L. The library patrons, on the average, were six months older mentally than is normal for their grade. This difference in intelligence level has a tendency to increase as the upper grades are reached.

M. The average intelligence quotient for the library cases was found to be 108. The average I.Q. for the city is approximately 100. There is a tendency for the children coming from the higher grades to be the brighter also.

N. While the library seemed to draw children from among the more intelligent groups, there is not a high correlation between I.Q. and library attendance.

O. Library children were more than half a school year above norm in their knowledge of words, as measured by a standardized sentence vocabulary test.

P. Library children were nearly half a school year above norm in their ability to read and understand printed material, as measured by a standardized test in reading comprehension.

Q. Library patrons as a group were more than four school months above norm in their ability to add, subtract, multiply, and divide, as measured by a standardized test in fundamentals of arithmetic.

R. The library cases were two and a half school months below norm in reasoning in arithmetic. They were, however, above the average for the city, as the schools as a whole are estimated as being four months retarded in this subject.

S. In comparing the library cases with unselected children of about the same mentality, they were in all cases doing better work. It would seem that library patrons have an added interest in their school work not found in children even of approximate mentality.

T. Using teachers' judgments for library cases and typical children, the ratings indicated that there were almost once again as many Good readers among the library cases as there were in the unselected group.

U. According to the teacher's ratings, there were half again as many library children who were marked Good in arithmetic as compared with ordinary cases. On the other hand, only half as many library cases were marked Poor in arithmetic.

V. A summary of data available for a few cases secured in surveys a year or more ago indicate at the time that library patrons were accelerated chronologically, were superior mentally, and were above norm in all their academic subjects except reasoning in arithmetic. In this last subject they were still above the standard set by the city as a whole.

V. SUMMARY

Briefly this study indicates:

1. Children who draw children's books are, more often than not, of a superior type, mentally and scholastically.
2. Many children of subnormal mentality do not make use of the children's section of the public library.

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CHILDREN'S READING¹

I

READING has been called "the most elemental and the most permanent of leisure interests, and the most vital in its influence upon character and mind." It was, therefore, appropriate that a Committee on Reading should have been appointed by the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection to serve under Section III-G, the section on "Youth Outside the Home and School." This committee, headed by Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association, consisted of librarians who have done or are doing work with children, either in public or in school libraries; a representative of the publishers; a professional investigator of juvenile problems; and men and women who have had experience in working with boys and girls in churches and in various organizations. The committee was assisted by many others, by publishers, by editors, by book-sellers, and by social welfare workers—in short, by people who have been in positions to observe the reading habits and interests of boys and girls. Only the co-operation and continued criticism of these willing collaborators made it possible to prepare, within the three months' time allowed, the report on the voluntary reading of our children and the agencies that provide them with reading matter.

Whatever effect the report may have on the layman who reads it, it must inevitably cause teachers, librarians, and others who work with children to note the great gaps in our knowledge of juvenile habits of voluntary reading, the need for more thorough studies than any that have yet been made, and the need for studies of problems hitherto neglected. A survey of the material used in preparing the report will perhaps make these needs even clearer.

The material consists chiefly of statistical information on

¹ A survey of the material used in the preparation of the report of the Committee on Reading of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

reading facilities and on the publication and distribution of juvenile reading matter and of matter suitable for juvenile and adolescent reading; about ninety special studies of the reading habits of selected groups and of specific reading problems;¹ also a great mass of more informal material, the records of the experience of teachers, librarians, and others. The relative importance of the three bodies of material was a question to be decided before the actual writing of the report.

II

So meager was the material of the first type that the question of what children actually have to read was nowhere satisfactorily answered. Statistics concerning home libraries, except in a few rural districts selected for study, do not exist. Figures of juvenile book publication are issued annually; but figures of juvenile book sale cannot be obtained, for publishers are unwilling to make such information available to their competitors. Reliable statistics of the sale of subscription book sets and of the circulation of the junior book clubs are, except in three or four cases, not to be had. The circulation figures for some thirteen juvenile magazines are of doubtful significance,² for the unsatisfactory nature of their content is well known. But if statistics of the circulation of magazines for young folks, an analysis of the parts of newspapers of interest to boys and girls, and figures of home ownership of books indicate anything, it is that our boys and girls must find most of their reading matter outside the home, and presumably in libraries of one sort or another.

But statistics concerning library work with children in the country as a whole are also lacking. The American Library As-

¹ This figure does not stand either for the number of studies summarized by Gray in his summary of investigations relating to reading or for the number of published studies, but merely for the number of studies available for use and used by the compilers of the report. However, it probably represents the number of important studies.

² Circulation of 2,094,578 copies monthly—an average of about one for every seventeen boys and girls under fifteen. The combined *Youth's companion* and *American boy* and four magazines which circulate chiefly among Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls make up one-third of the circulation of the thirteen.

sociation's study of public library conditions and needs,¹ published in 1926, gives interesting general statistics on public library service, or the lack of it, but no statistics on the separate, departmentalized work with children that is considered an essential part of all library service at the present day. One asks in vain what part of the 47 per cent of our people without public library service are children; how many of the two and a quarter million books circulated annually from our public libraries are juvenile books or books withdrawn for juvenile reading; how many of the 15,000 and more trained or experienced librarians in the United States² are trained for, or are doing work with, children; what amount of the thirty-five and a third million dollars spent on public library work each year is spent on children's books, on the maintenance of children's rooms, or for salary of children's librarians? Expediency and the lack of funds had necessitated the limitation of the American Library Association study to library service in general, as the lack of funds and time has prevented many libraries from keeping the records necessary to any nation-wide survey of library work with children that might be undertaken—a fact brought out in the third volume of the *American Library Association survey of libraries in the United States*, published in 1927.

A similar lack of information affects all reports on library work in schools. Three thousand public high-school and private preparatory school libraries are listed in the *American library directory* for 1930, but those listed are only those which co-operated with the compiler of the *Directory* by filling out blanks submitted to them; and so dissimilar are they in equipment and organization and in the service which they render that not even the statement, "There are 25,000 public high schools and private preparatory schools in the United States, of which 3,000 are known to have well organized libraries," could be made; and the bare statement that there are 3,000 libraries listed in the

¹ *Library extension: A study of public library conditions and needs* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1926).

² About 15,000 graduates of library schools are registered with the American Library Association; about 12,000 are members of the Association.

Directory was felt to be without real significance. Concerning the number of elementary school libraries, which must have increased at a great rate in recent years, there are no figures at all.

The failure, after much search, to find significant statistics concerning public and school library work led the compilers of the report to expect even less success in their investigation of libraries in institutions, in Sunday schools, hospitals, orphan asylums, and belonging to the boys' and girls' own organizations, such as the Boy and Girl Scouts and the 4-H Clubs.

A few libraries in children's hospitals and orphan asylums are well known, and some churches likewise are known to have excellent libraries, not merely books for the workers in the Sunday-school department but books for voluntary, recreational reading by the children themselves; however, only one sect or denomination was able to furnish any information concerning libraries maintained by its congregations, and the number reported was discouragingly small. Miss Leona Lavender, in charge of libraries in the Department of Sunday School Administration of the Baptist Sunday School Board, wrote:

For a short while [our] department has been giving attention to church libraries in the hope of reviving old ones, building new ones, and furnishing help of all kinds for them. . . . From the partial survey that this department has made we now have a mailing list of about eighty libraries. Of course, there are many more just like theirs of which we have no record. We find that the majority of the libraries have just a few volumes, which, in many cases, are not being read at all, since no special effort has been made to get the books into the hands of the people.¹

Replies far less definite than this, received from representatives of the leading religious bodies of the United States, made the compilers of the report take encouragement from the attitude of Miss Lucile F. Fargo, chairman of the Subcommittee on School Libraries, and the recognized authority on the subject, who wrote in the course of her subcommittee report:

Collections of books are present in most schools, but the choice of books is notoriously poor, organization is lacking, and correlations with the socialized program of the school are extremely unsatisfactory. Statistics could not tell

¹ Letter to Dr. J. M. Artman, member of the Committee on Reading, September 24, 1930.

the story, because statistics deal primarily with the numbers of books and are largely silent on quality, appropriateness, and range of subject. Moreover, statistics can say little about adequacy of physical equipment and trained service.

Statistics were wanted, but in the absence of statistics it was consoling to consider the inadequacy of any that might have existed.

The lack of definite, statistical information seemed to necessitate, however, some statement concerning the non-statistical tone of the report; and accordingly, in the introduction to the report the statement was made:

We deplore the necessity of using such phrases as "the majority," "a large number," and "comparatively few," throughout this report. Unfortunately we are dealing here with a field in which few statistics exist, and in which little research has been undertaken.

But the examination of the statistics that do exist and of less formal information concerning book service to children had convinced the compilers of one thing, namely, that some children are bountifully served by the various agencies for book distribution while the majority are not served at all. Library facilities and good book stores exist almost without exception only in communities where there is a genuine communal book-consciousness and a fairly widespread circulation of the better magazines and of daily newspapers. The public, the school, and the institutional libraries and the book stores therefore serve for the most part the same children: there is no division and equalization of opportunities. The other children—children in the great areas of the United States, urban as well as rural—who are not served by these agencies usually have little to read except school textbooks and reading matter that comes into their hands almost by accident. And this, though only a tentative conclusion, seemed nevertheless worth recording.

III

The material of the second type consists of studies, made chiefly by students in various schools of education and recorded in Professor Gray's summaries of investigations relating to read-

ing;² but supplemented by a few other studies not so recorded. Some of these studies, such as A. M. Jordan's North Carolina study³ and Miss Raschig's study of a Cincinnati high school,⁴ are excellent; but all of them have been greatly limited in the field of investigation, and many have been limited even more in execution by the lack of funds or of time necessary for the investigators to have made the fullest use of the data collected, to have recorded and tabulated all their findings, and to have worked out all suggested correlations.⁴ Furthermore, as the long bibliography prepared as a first step in the writing of the report revealed, there has been a great duplication of effort put upon certain subjects, and others have been neglected altogether; also, the studies have been made only in certain localities, and for the most part only in localities where children have had comparatively easy access to books.

The studies are of many types, as a perusal of the table of contents of Gray's *Summary* or of the annotated lists in the *Summary* and the annual supplements will indicate. In purpose they range all the way from simple lists of books and magazines actually read, sometimes classified as "enjoyed" and "not enjoyed," to elaborate studies of the relations of extrinsic factors—such as type, illustrations, size of page and of book, and color of binding—to children's choices and preferences. Some investigators have even attempted to find a correlation between the child's attitude toward a book and the reason for which he decided to read it. But altogether too many of these presumably scientific studies were invalidated from the very moment of their inception by the failure of the investigators to achieve a

¹ W. S. Gray's summaries of investigations relating to reading, "Supplementary educational monographs," No. 28 (Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1925); *idem*, *Summary of reading investigations*, Nos. 1-5 (1926-29), issued by the Department of Education, University of Chicago.

² A. M. Jordan, *Children's interests in reading* (2d ed., rev., University of North Carolina, 1926).

³ E. A. Raschig, "An Investigation of the voluntary reading of Woodward High School: An interpretation of data and a consideration of method" (unpublished Master's thesis, College of Education, University of Cincinnati, 1928).

⁴ This is true even of so excellent a study as Miss Raschig's, referred to in the preceding note.

satisfactory and reliable method of gathering information. A program for assembling reliable data on actual reading interests (as contrasted with reading done) of typical groups in representative and widely scattered localities—a program of the sort described by Dr. Douglas Waples in a recent issue of the *Journal of adult education*¹—seems not yet to have been developed by students investigating the reading tastes, interests, and habits of boys and girls. Indeed, many of the students who have gathered the data already reported are people who lack the insight, the experience, and the proper training essential to all successful work in this field.

Too few investigators, even among those who have collected significant data, have had the understanding and penetration to write, in interpretation of their data, as one recent investigator of adolescent reading interests and habits has written:

If one could know with any degree of definiteness the underlying processes that governed the choice of books by an individual young person, and the modification of the human personality that went on under the stress of book-influence that played upon his consciousness, one might come near to untying at least one vexatious knot in the tangled skein of education. But psychology, though it is politely called a science, has much within it that is vague and undefined, much that is altogether dark. One sees a few straws of behavior floating on the surface of a dark stream, and one guesses at the force of the currents which drives them about.

A far commoner type of investigator is one who lists anonymously certain books "objectionable for high-school pupils" reported as read, which, when examined, prove to be, among others, *Candida*, *Boston*, and *Mamba's daughters*; one who fails to see that it is more significant that thirty-one high-school students should have read of their own volition and enjoyed *The Island within* by Ludwig Lewisohn than that fifty or so should have reported pleasure in reading *Silas Marner* and *The Lady of the lake*, books that were unquestionably read as part of the required work of the schools.² And too often the results of

¹ "What do adults want to learn?" *Journal of adult education*, II (1930), 376-87.

² The popularity of *The Island within* raises a question, of course, of racial background. The point is, however, that in a study consulted it was referred to as "objectionable for high-school pupils" whose good taste was commended because they liked and enjoyed reading books required for reading in their work in English.

research methods, especially when the tests are given, as most of them have been, in school classrooms, are conditioned by the conscious or expected responses of the boys and girls engaging in the tests, vitiated by the mere presence of the teacher in the room. The titles of many books and magazines read and liked by children are never recorded, even in tests answered anonymously.

For these various reasons a qualifying statement concerning the reliability of these investigations and the use made of them in the report seemed as necessary as the statement concerning the use (or lack) of statistical information. In the introduction to the report it was stated, therefore, that "the existing scientific studies, while valuable, must be considered as inconclusive, because they are based on isolated pieces of research, and our conclusions, based in turn on them, must be presented as tentative." This statement was not intended as a disparagement of the excellent, though limited, studies that do exist, but rather as an unbiased estimate of as yet unperfected scientific methods.

IV

Furthermore, it was from the first recognized by the committee that trained librarians with many years experience in work with children could furnish reliable information adequate for a report on the voluntary reading of American children, and that scientific studies could not carry conviction to experienced workers unless the results of such studies agreed with opinions reached after long and varied experience, including experience in work with the same groups over longer periods of time than the periods covered by any scientific studies yet made. On the other hand, it seemed a little ridiculous that any scientific study, involving the expenditure of much time and often large sums of money, should present only the conclusion that "the students of the school studied and read a great variety of magazines" or that "fiction seems to have a greater grip on the reading interests of boys and girls than reading matter of an informational sort"—conclusions any worker with children knows almost *a priori* to be true.

And so, whether or not the information furnished by libra-

rians and teachers and other workers with children carried the weight of the scientific studies, it seemed wiser to give more credence to the opinions of successful, experienced workers, and to rely on them as much as on the scientific investigations for evidence concerning the success of library work with children, the effect of various forms of recreation and activity and of directed methods in stimulating reading and encouraging good reading habits, and the types of books and magazines popular with children. Once the preparation of the report was actually under way, it became clear that this decision had been a fortunate one. Experienced librarians had not only published significant articles on children's reading but could also furnish information on topics which had apparently never been touched by scientific investigators.

To illustrate: In a report on the voluntary reading of children in the United States, where society is nowhere homogeneous, it seemed essential that recognition should be made of the reading interests of the various and diverse groups that make up our social fabric. Mrs. Mitchell's study of *Children and movies*¹ had made it clear, for instance, that reading habits must be studied in relation to the organized and supervised use of leisure time, because Boy and Girl Scouts as groups, she found, go to movies less and read more than any other of the groups which she studied. But the reading interests and habits of groups and of individuals differ as well with social environment, with economic occupation or status,² with age, with sex, and—so certain evidence suggested—with race. The reading interests and habits of the thousands of children of foreign birth and of children who, though born in America, grow up in a social environment that remains largely foreign could not be neglected in the report.

But after considerable investigation only four studies of the

¹ A. M. Mitchell, *Children and movies* (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1930).

² This fact is brought out in several studies. See particularly the following: A. W. Jefferis, "A Study of reading interests of young people in industry" (unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1927); H. G. Ormsbee, *The Young employed girl* (Woman's Press, 1927); W. F. Rasche, *The Reading interests of young workers*, "Vocational education monographs," No. 9 (Milwaukee Vocational School, 1925).

reading interests and ability of negro children were discovered,¹ and none of the reading habits and interests of children of other races; nor, in the many studies of children's reading, had the factor of race received much attention in the statements made concerning the home environment and the social background of the children studied. The aim of most of the investigators had been, apparently, to study "an even stratum of American middle-class life," "100 per cent American" (and presumably Nordic) boys and girls, as if such undiluted groups anywhere exist. As a result, librarians had to be appealed to; and the information which the committee was able to present concerning racial differences in reading interests and habits was drawn almost wholly from their testimony.²

Material of this sort, based chiefly on experience and observation and only rarely on tabulations and formal records, is to be found in innumerable articles contributed to various library magazines and pedagogical reviews,³ and additional material was communicated directly to the committee. Such material proved interesting and illuminating; but much of it had, like the scientific studies, to be used with caution. The enthusiasm of librarians for their work and a consequent tendency to discover desirable results where desirable results are not actually evident; the gradual, unconscious narrowing of point of view that work almost exclusively with children sometimes brings; and a tendency toward excessive informality in writing which is a natural concomitant of informality in library work with children, are factors which vitiate much of the writing which some librarians have done about their own work. Furthermore, difference in experience leads to differences in opinions which

¹ The report was, of course, one on reading interests and habits, and only incidentally on reading ability: the only known study on the reading *interests* of a racially foreign group is that made by P. A. Witty and S. D. Scruggs of the reading interests of negro children, summarized in the University of Kansas *Bulletin of education*, I (1926), 7-11.

² The lively criticism of this part of the report aroused by the conclusions set forth emphasizes the need for prolonged scientific investigation of the subject.

³ Besides articles in the more general and well-known library magazines, helpful articles were found in various bulletins issued locally by libraries and in state library bulletins. Much significant information is to be found also in books written by Miss Anne Carroll Moore, Mrs. May Lamberton Becker, Miss Effie Power, and others.

appear, as a result, as flatly contradictory as much of the data presented in the scientific studies and with the reasons for the differences unrecognized and equally difficult to account for.

And on many topics, of course, librarians could give no help at all. The as yet incomplete extension of library work to the socially, the economically, and the physically handicapped, to boys and girls in industry, to rural children, to children in crowded city districts where no branch libraries as yet exist, and to children condemned by physical infirmities to spend their days in hospitals and similar institutions, has prevented a general recognition of the specific reading problems of these groups; and they have been as little studied by librarians as by other investigators.

For one or another of these reasons, therefore, such topics as "what comes of children's reading"; "the relation of reading to physical health and moral well-being"; "the effect of childhood reading on the mature individual"; "the place of reading in remedial work with problem children"; "the use of reading in overcoming physical, mental, economic, and social handicaps"; and "the relation of reading habits to mental characteristics and achievements," were recorded in the report not as topics concerning which we can as yet speak with authority but as suggestions for future study. Librarians, teachers, doctors, psychologists, sociologists, publishers, writers, and illustrators are only just beginning to give each other the mutual help and sympathetic co-operation necessary before any significant evidence on these topics can be presented. Ironically enough, the very topics most directly connected with the purpose of the conference for which the report was written—child health and protection—had of necessity to be given the briefest treatment, or to be summarily dismissed.

V

For quite different reasons, however, another problem of great interest and of importance had to be reduced drastically in treatment in the effort to keep the report within the 10,000-word limit originally set. This is the problem of what children

read, on which the most reliable information is available. The material contains much important information and some genuine amusement, especially when the answers children have made to questionnaires are recorded literally.¹ To emphasize measures of the greatest practical expediency and evidence of the most obvious significance to the layman more space in the report is given to the question of accessibility of reading matter. In spite of the lack of statistical information, this topic receives more attention than the question of what is actually read, especially since it became increasingly apparent that what children read is essentially a question of what they have to read, and that "the problem of promoting good reading among American children is, above everything else, a problem of making good reading matter accessible."² Of the thirteen recommendations made by the committee, nine were, accordingly, concerned directly with making reading matter accessible.

VI

For readers of this article the recommendations are, perhaps, a sufficient summary of the report. They are as follows:

1. Public library service should be made available to the 40,000,000 people (about 15,000,000 of whom are children) now without it, through the establishment of municipal and especially of county (or other large-unit) libraries.
2. The establishment of such libraries and the improvement of libraries now in existence, and particularly the improvement of specialized service for children and for adolescents, should be made possible by generous local appropriations, by state aid, and by federal aid, and should be encouraged by the strengthening of state library extension agencies.
3. Librarians working with children and adolescents in public and school libraries should have a minimum of a year's specialized education for their work at a library school which meets the standards set by recognized accrediting agencies.

¹ As in Carleton Washburne and Mabel Vogel, *Winnetka graded book list* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1926).

² The conclusion of the report.

4. Every school should have a library supported by adequate appropriations, and every school library should be in charge of, or under, the supervision of a person professionally qualified to select books and to direct reading as an important part of the work of the school and of the life of the child.

5. The development in every child of a permanent and desirable habit of reading should be the prime objective of the teaching of reading and English literature in the schools.

6. Parents should be made aware that theirs is the chief responsibility for stimulating an interest in good reading and for making books available in the home. They should also be made to realize their duty of reading to, and with, their children. Associations of parents should place increased emphasis on that part of their program which affects children's reading interests, and should give their indorsement to all projects for the establishment and improvement of agencies which provide good reading matter for children.

7. Publishers should continue the splendid publishing programs of the past ten years which have brought to children some of the best work of the finest present-day writers and artists; they should be encouraged to extend their publishing programs to include suitable books of various sorts needed, as indicated by scientific investigations and recommended by competent observers. It is also urged that further efforts be made to make available at low prices the best in children's literature.

8. A spirited, well-written, purposeful, illustrated magazine for young children should be provided.

9. Writers and artists should be encouraged to give their fullest creative ability to children's books and magazines.

10. Bookstores should be encouraged; they should also be urged to employ as salesmen people trained in the selection and use of children's books, and to promote purchases by mail from rural areas.

11. Institutions, organizations, churches, and special-interest groups of all sorts are urged to develop a library service designed to meet the reading and study needs of their groups, especially in communities without public libraries.

12. All methods that stimulate children's reading and create appropriate habits of reading should be studied and used intelligently and persistently by librarians, teachers, parents, and all adults interested in child education and welfare.

13. Scientific studies should be made, by persons equipped by training and experience, of the reading preferences of children, of the influence of reading on character, of the place of books, reading, and libraries in the teaching process, and of the individual and social factors which affect the wise use of books by children.

One recommendation not made by the committee, but long deliberated, was for the establishment of a centralized bureau of information concerning children's reading. The collection and dissemination of information of this sort, how juvenile reading interests can be encouraged and improved, what books and magazines are necessary to satisfy these interests and for the work of improving them, and how reading matter can be made most satisfactorily accessible to our children, urban as well as rural, in crowded tenement districts or in cultured neighborhoods, is a problem to be best handled by a centralized bureau, in spite of the fact that funds for establishing library service and for improving service that already exists must be furnished locally, and the further fact that local solutions must always be found for local needs. Such a bureau, no matter how or where established, provided it be under suitable auspices and have sufficient funds at its disposal, could organize and direct studies of the various sorts indicated as needed in the report, and summarized in the thirteenth recommendation. And not until we have learned more than we now know of what comes of children's reading, and of the relation of habits of reading to health and moral well-being, can we attempt to direct through reading the development of the child into a well-rounded individual and a desirable citizen, capable of making use of reading matter for pleasure, for continued education, and for the improvement of himself and of society.

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WHAT SUBJECTS APPEAL TO THE GENERAL READER?

THIS article is a brief résumé of a somewhat extensive report.^{*} To make the account as clear as possible all technical matters have been omitted. Only those items are mentioned which librarians and others directly concerned with the selection and distribution of reading matter are likely to find significant.

The background.—There are a number of questions about reading that are easy to ask but hard to answer. One of them is the question—why is it that some people read and others do not? If this could be answered easily, the effects upon school and college, the public library, the book trade, and modern civilization itself would be far-reaching indeed.

The reason so simple a question is so hard to answer is, of course, because individual readers are so different. The same person may read all day long for several weeks on the same problem and then read nothing but an occasional newspaper for the next month. While two readers have the same eagerness to read about money matters, one may love poetry and the other may hate it. People who are fond of the same sort of reading may differ greatly in their ability to get it. If one lives opposite a large public library and the other lives on a farm, their reading habits are likely to differ widely. It is this difference in the tastes, habits, opportunities, and incentives of individuals which makes it so difficult to say why some find pleasure and profit in reading and others do not. And only as we approach an answer to this question are we likely to widen the scope and extend the influence of good books.

Particularly among librarians and teachers of adults there has been an increasingly active interest in such questions during

^{*} To be published May 26, by the American Library Association and the University of Chicago Press, under the title *What people want to read about*, by the present writer and Ralph W. Tyler.

recent years. One result was the appointment in 1926 of a committee to bring together the available facts about adult reading and to secure additional facts by direct investigation. This Committee on the Reading Interests and Habits of Adults was appointed jointly by the American Library Association and the American Association for Adult Education.

The activities of the committee were encouraged and directed by the wide response to Thorndike's study of *Adult learning*. Publication of this study renewed the faith of many who had considered people beyond thirty or forty years of age to be "too far gone" to learn any new thing efficiently. The fact that useful learning is not prevented by advancing age has a great deal to do with the place of serious reading in modern society. For it implies that reading about new and important subjects is helpful at any age. Adult reading need not be confined to the purely recreational reading which is at present so large a part of public-library circulation and book sales.

As a result of this encouragement, the committee undertook to assemble the results of studies already made. This work was done by W. S. Gray and Ruth Monroe. The result¹ is a collection of many interesting facts. Perhaps the most significant of these is the discovery that adult reading is not one big problem so much as a wide variety of specific problems. That is to say, when the findings are brought together it becomes evident that to understand what people are reading and what they want to read we must consider different sorts of people and different sorts of reading, one at a time. Otherwise we can only make the hopelessly vague statement that almost everybody reads different amounts of everything for all sorts of reasons. Reading exhibits the variety of life.

So Gray's work made it plain that if we are going to get anywhere with it we must break the problem up. That means, for example, we must take one type of reading like the daily press and find out what subjects are discussed and how they are discussed. Then we must find out which of these subjects appeal

¹ W. S. Gray and Ruth Monroe, *The Reading interests and habits of adults* (Macmillan, 1929).

to and are read by different sorts of readers—men and women, married men and single men, college men and non-college men, men in cities and men in towns, men in business and men in professions, and so on for corresponding groups of women. Facts about reading must be obtained for all groups differing in sex, schooling, occupation, and other factors that help to explain why they read what they do read. Then we must repeat the process with magazines, books, and other types of reading matter.

Now it is usually at about this point in the description of a piece of research that the practical worker throws up his hands. He says in effect, "No one with any sense of humor or with any real desire to arrive at useful conclusions could possibly split hairs in that fashion. By the time any such program could be carried through, the whole scene may have shifted and we should have to start all over again."

There is, of course, much good sense in this position, so much, in fact, that the present study was undertaken in the hope of finding a short-cut to one type of information that is highly important. The information desired would tell us what people of different sorts want to read about. But, again, "what people want to read about" is a very large order. The problem must be broken up into still smaller problems. Since the two elements in the problem are the reader and the things he might read, we shall have to find some way to escape the task of examining all the individual readers and all the things any reader might read. How this escape has been found in the present study can perhaps best be explained by stating what the study does not attempt to do.

For one thing, the study as published has nothing to do as yet with actual reading. It is concerned entirely with what people would like to read about.

Second, we do not attempt to define interests in terms of actual titles, whether of newspaper features, magazine articles, or books. We do attempt to find out what *subjects* are most interesting. The subjects are selected from a complete list of 117 subjects like "the next war," "sports," "the movies," "criti-

cisms of modern America," "successful marriage," "party politics," and "success in business."

Third, the study is not concerned with individuals; it is concerned with groups. By a group we mean people who are alike in sex, amount of schooling, type of occupation, and type of environment. We do not know what the subjects are that will consistently appeal to individual readers because we find their interests to be so variable. We do know that groups are *not* variable, for reasons presented at length in the full report. To make such reasons clear demands considerable space in which to furnish the statistical evidence.

Fourth, we do not attempt to say how to make people read according to their interests, nor how to make people read books who now read only newspapers, nor how to make people read about subjects more useful to them. We hope, none the less, that the practical worker may find suggestions concerning these and other equally important questions in the further developments of the study.

Fifth, we have nothing to say which can possibly interfere in any way with the emphasis now placed by librarians upon meeting the needs of individuals. Any intelligent use of our findings cannot fail to increase this emphasis. In fact it is just in so far as *group* interests are determined that the librarian's time and energy are released for attention to the individual interests which differ from those of the group.

Sixth, and last, we do not undertake to prove that people, when given the chance, will actually read more upon subjects in which they want to read than upon subjects in which they do not want to read. It should be clear to any thoughtful person that *reading interest may or may not find expression in actual reading*. Various conditions interfere, such as lack of time, lack of reading matter, insufficient vocabulary, complicated style, and many others.

In the study herein described, we submit no evidence on this point. Evidence is however available, and will soon be published, that indicates a correspondence between the reading interests and the actual reading of certain groups. In any case,

one would expect a librarian or publisher to benefit by knowing what subjects are most interesting to these groups when he undertakes to select books that the members of such groups will read. Whether or not this possibility seems reasonable to practicing librarians and bookmen, the results of the study should receive their careful attention. For the findings suggest many other applications.

Attention to the evidence would seem to be justified by the fully established fact that the evidence is reliable. That is to say, the ratings obtained from the members of a group are honest expressions of opinion, they are consistent among themselves, they do not vary from time to time, and they do not change when obtained from different individuals representing the same group—i.e., from persons representing the same sex, amount of schooling, occupation, and type of environment. The accuracy of the foregoing sentence is abundantly supported by evidence contained in the full report.

Procedure.—The first year's work on the problem consisted largely in preparing a complete list of the topics upon which articles are written in contemporary magazines. To obtain such topics the many thousand articles published in the United States from 1919 to 1929 were carefully sampled and classified. The 117 headings made for the classification thus furnished the list of topics desired, since one or more of the headings necessarily covered each of the subjects discussed in the many articles filed under the headings.

In order to restrict the list of topics to the general field of contemporary non-fiction, four types of material were excluded; namely, pure fiction, humorous writing, historical subjects, and subjects addressed primarily to particular vocational groups. With these exceptions the list of 117 topics purports to include all contemporary topics of interest to the general reader.

When the list of topics was obtained, the next step was to ask many different sorts of readers to go over the list and indicate their relative interest in each topic. Each reader was asked to mark each topic which he would like to read about right away with an x, meaning "very interesting." Topics he would not

read about under ordinary conditions he was told to mark *o*, meaning "not interesting." The other topics he was told not to mark at all, so that no mark would mean "neither interesting nor uninteresting."

When a number of people who are alike in certain respects (such as sex, age, and amount of schooling) had marked the list in this way, it was easy, of course, to add up the marks on each topic as expressed by the group as a whole.

For example, if fifty men high-school teachers marked the list of 117 topics, twenty might mark the first topic *x*, twenty might leave it blank, and ten might mark it *o*. If we give the numerical value two to the *x* ratings, 1 to the blank ratings, and zero to the *o* ratings, we can thus score the topic for the group. Two times twenty gives a sum of forty for the *x* ratings, one times twenty gives twenty for the blank ratings, and zero times ten gives zero for the *o* ratings. Hence the score of this topic for this group would be forty plus twenty or sixty.

Each of the other topics can be scored in the same way for this group or for any other group of readers. The topics can then be listed in the order of their relative interest to each group by means of the scores. The topic with a score-value of sixty would be considered more interesting to the group than another topic with a smaller score.

The use of the group as a unit of measurement is the distinguishing feature of the study. That is, the findings consist of data which show the relative interest of various groups of adult persons in the list of 117 topics. A group is composed of individuals alike in respect to one or more such factors of reading interest as sex, amount of schooling, type of occupation, and environment.

The table will give some idea of the different kinds of readers who have thus far checked the list of topics. The figures show the number of different groups within each of the thirteen general classes of readers sampled to date. Each group was represented by about seventy individuals, on the average, so returns have been obtained from about five thousand persons.

It is intended to continue the study until returns have been

obtained from enough different groups to represent the general adult population. When this has been done, it should be possible to say which topics are of most interest to adult readers in general or to any particular combination of groups that one may wish to know about. However, until many other groups are

OCCUPATION	NUMBER OF GROUPS			
	Men	Women	Both	Total
Librarians		1		1
Teachers	3	4	4	11
Graduate students	1	2		3
College students	10	10	1	11
High-school students	3	2		5
Vocational school students	1	1		2
Post-office employees	1			1
Prisoners	1			1
Chicago telephone operators		2		2
Farmers	2			2
Factory workers	1	2		3
Cleveland machinists	1			1
Housewives		2		2
Subdivisions of large groups:				
Much and little readers	10	6		16
Country and city dwellers	2	4		6
Older and younger	2	6		8
College and rental library		2		2
More and less schooling	2			2
Total	40	44	5	89
Groups not large enough to be reliable				15
Total number of groups sampled				104

sampled, we cannot generalize in this way with safety. The best we can do at present is to illustrate certain tendencies on the part of general readers by means of the patterns of reading interest already obtained. Some of these tendencies will be mentioned as "findings."

Findings.—Perhaps the most important fact to emerge is that all groups of adults express genuine *interest in reading about matters of real importance*. The particular subjects of interest and the relative amount of interest, of course, vary from group

to group. But it is somewhat contrary to popular opinion to know that interest in reading about such significant social issues as "personal hygiene," "the next war," "the courts and the administration of justice," and the like, is nearly universal among adult members of all classes of society.

Perhaps the next most important fact is that *people like to read about themselves*. The more closely a subject relates to what is familiar to the given reader, the more interesting it is. The common denominator of reading interest, in the field of non-fiction at least, is self.

This theory is supported by the returns from each group we have sampled to date. For example, we can take any group, such as Chicago telephone operators, and select topics from the list that directly concern telephone operators. We then compare the selected topics with the topics which actually receive the highest scores for reading interest. The latter topics almost invariably include the former.

Another demonstration of the same fact appears when one compares the topics preferred by a large number of different groups. As a rule, again, the same subjects are preferred by groups that are most nearly alike, as one would naturally expect. That is to say, any two groups of the same sex tend to have more interests in common than any two groups of different sex.

The same tendency is evident when additional factors are considered, such as difference in amount of schooling, difference in occupation, difference in geographic environment, difference in size of community, difference in age, and difference in the amount of time per week that is spent in reading. The larger the number of such differences between any two groups, the fewer subjects are of common interest. The fewer the differences between the groups, the more common interests there are.

By means of the statistical method of correlation it is possible to determine a numerical index of the relationship existing between the subjects of interest to any two groups. By the same methods one can determine the reliability of this relationship. Hence, it is a very simple task to find out which groups do agree

most closely. The statements in the last two paragraphs may therefore be taken literally, which would not be the case if it were possible for someone else to interpret the evidence otherwise.

We have already explained how the scores on each topic show what topics are most interesting to any one group. In the same way it is possible to select the topics of most interest to all groups. For example, our returns to date from more than a hundred groups show that two questions are very interesting to everybody, namely, "how to keep well" and "how to keep happy." Also nearly everybody is interested in the questions "how can I best increase my chances of being a success in life?" and "how much hostility exists between the different nations at the present time?" "The next war" is a related subject of almost universal interest.

Again the group-scores on the topics can be used to find topics in which the interests of selected groups are most different. That is to say, if a given library or bookstore should find it useful to know what subjects should be avoided in selecting books most likely to appeal to each of the groups served, say college students, housewives, and business men, it would be very easy to find out. One would merely select the subjects that are found uninteresting to one or more of the groups concerned.

In the same way the findings show how the interests of several different groups compare on the same topic or how they compare in respect to several related topics. For instance, suppose the public librarian of a large city is offered a special fund to purchase books on the subject of agriculture. Should he accept or decline it? If he is willing to assume that his decision should rest upon the number of his patrons who are farmers, he would probably decline the gift. But if he wishes to know how many of the groups represented in his patronage are interested in reading about agriculture, the group returns would help him considerably. He would simply count the groups represented in his community who are much interested, the groups who are neutral, and the groups who are least interested; then use the comparisons for what they are worth in making his decision.

Another example will serve to show how the procedure may be used to find the subjects of most interest to a given community. A public librarian, of long experience in small and medium-sized communities, selected 23 of the 117 topics appearing on the check-list when asked to select the topics on which most books need to be purchased to meet the public library demand. Sixteen groups were then chosen as best representing a typical American community. The 23 topics considered by the librarian to be most in demand were then compared with the topics in which most interest was expressed by the sixteen groups. Only 3 topics appeared in both lists! Twenty of the 23 library topics were relatively uninteresting to half of the sixteen groups and 12 other topics, not selected by the librarian, were found to be just as interesting as the 3 most interesting topics he had selected.

To carry this illustration further, the field of modern biography is one of the more popular classes of non-fiction as judged by publication and circulation figures. But what is its relative popularity as compared with other subjects on which there are fewer readable books? Are certain groups interested in certain types of biography and not in other types?

These questions can be answered by the findings. For instance, the general field of biography is far less interesting to the sixteen selected groups than many other fields of the same scope. On the whole it may be said that biography stands at about the middle of the list when the topics are arranged in the order of relative interest for all groups. The number of subjects that are more interesting than biography is about the same as the number that are less interesting.

It is not possible to say to what groups biography as such is most interesting. No answer can be given until one knows what biographical subjects we are talking about. It is easy enough to say what groups like certain subjects. Biographies of athletes may be highly interesting to college boys, biographies of business leaders may appeal strongly to business men, and biographies of royalty may appeal to housewives—but no one type of biography appears to have a strong appeal for more than a small proportion of the groups sampled.

Since illustrations like these are abundantly supplied in the full report, it is not necessary perhaps to include more of them in this preliminary sketch. The foregoing remarks should suggest the sort of evidence we have secured. We may now briefly consider certain ways in which the findings may be used.

Applications.—It is something of a question whether those responsible for the spade-work on a problem such as ours should also be expected to say how their results should be applied. The practical workers in the field—whether booksellers, librarians, publishers, teachers, or social workers—know most about the value and practicability of the applications we have to suggest. It is earnestly hoped that the practical worker, who is concerned about the selection, distribution, direction, and effects of adult reading, may not be content to point out errors in the recommendations but that he will go on to suggest and experiment with other applications which seem to him more useful or more feasible.

Perhaps the most obvious application of the data would consist in using the scores for each of the non-fiction topics as one basis for the selection of books to be purchased by libraries or booksellers. This use should be especially appropriate in stocking a new branch library or bookstore, provided the groups composing the local community can be identified. Needless to say, such evidence alone would not be sufficient. The fact, that a majority of the groups represented in the clientèle of the library are much interested in the subject of which a book treats, is of course only one reason for buying the book. There is little to choose between a dull book on an interesting subject and an interesting book on a dull subject. The difficulty of the book, its price, the number of other books on the same subject, and many other factors will also need to be carefully considered. But, other things being equal, it is hard to see how the book-selecting authorities of a given public library would fail to benefit by evidence concerning the relative appeal of each subject on the list to the particular groups composing their clientèle.

Many librarians who read this suggestion will doubtless think of many serious objections to such a basis for book selection. If so, the fact should be emphasized that whether the group scores

are useful or not can very easily be determined by a controlled experiment. All one would need to do is to find two groups who patronize the given library to about the same extent—say housewives who are college graduates and professional men. The topics of most interest to each group would then be selected from the group scores. On each of the interesting topics one would choose two or three of the most readable books in the library.

The experiment would then consist in displaying the books on topics of interest to housewives in the local women's club. Books selected as at present would be displayed in the local clubs or office buildings patronized by professional men. Circulation at both centers would be recorded for a period of, say, six months. At the end of this period the conditions would be reversed. The books displayed for professional men would be selected according to the preferred subjects as shown by the topic scores and the books for the college women would not. Circulation would again be recorded. If at the end of the second six months it is found that the books selected according to the interesting topics have a wider circulation both among the college women and the professional men than the books not so selected, the value of the data for purposes of book-selection would be reasonably well established.

Many other applications of a similar nature can be made in respect to the selection and circulation of books in any one or more classes of the library. Any library, for example, is likely to contain a large number of books on the general subjects of war and peace. The general subjects are represented in the check-list by three specific topics: namely, "the next war," "preparedness," and "peace movements." The three topics are mentioned in the order shown by the returns to be the order of decreasing interest for most groups. It would be useful to select the readable books which directly concern the question of the next war and then compare the circulation per book of these books with the circulation of other books on war and peace.

About thirty public libraries and many college libraries make

some provision for helping readers to find books of most interest and value. In public libraries such help is given by an assistant called the "readers' adviser." In recommending non-fiction books, the group-interest scores should be of some value to this officer if only in ruling out certain subjects as unlikely to attract the given reader.

Here again it is a simple matter to discover whether the group-scores do or do not help to improve the methods now used to discover the readers' interests. In case a given readers' adviser feels that he knows what topics are most likely to interest the members of a given group, such as telephone operators, he has merely to check the list with this group of readers in mind. The topics in which he thinks the operators are most interested may then be compared with the topics in which they actually are interested, as shown by the returns. Such comparisons would show very quickly whether or not readers' advisers have anything to learn from the evidence. We have already said that some interests can be anticipated, but the majority cannot be anticipated except by someone who is very familiar with the particular group concerned.

A further experiment might be made by readers' advisers to discover whether individual patrons read more non-fiction books on the topics of most interest to groups of the same sex, schooling, and occupation than they read on other topics. If so, the group-scores would presumably be helpful to readers' advisers in selecting interesting books on non-fiction for individual patrons. Again, however, we emphasize the fact that the group-scores alone are not a sufficient basis for selecting titles.

Applications of the data, as previously stated, are not however confined to librarians. Among the many other agencies which should find them useful are publishers and booksellers.

General publishers of non-fiction books should benefit by knowing what subjects are most interesting to all groups of readers. Publishers who restrict their publications to special fields should benefit by knowing to what particular groups the special subjects make the strongest appeal. The group-scores on

the topics may be used to identify the groups who are most interested in any given subject or combination of subjects. In the case of the publisher who serves a restricted patronage, e.g., farmers, or housewives, or professional men, the data may be used to determine what subjects have most interest for the given group.

The findings should be useful to the bookseller in the same way, either to indicate subjects of most interest to the groups comprising the given clientèle or to show what groups are most interested in the subjects treated by books already in stock.

In conclusion one should note that the data in their present state are of primary interest to students. It is hoped that further studies made possible by the returns will result in findings of direct value to the many agencies which utilize reading matter for educational and recreational purposes.

For example, by methods utilized in a supplementary study, group-interests in reading are compared with actual reading. The topics of most interest to a group are compared with the topics on which the group actually reads in order to discover what interests are not satisfied. Six conditions are noted which, among others, account for the failure of certain groups to read about the subjects of most interest. It is concluded that methods of increasing the output, publication, distribution, sale, circulation, and consumption of books on socially important and interesting subjects need to be developed; also that such methods will be those which remove the conditions that now prevent many adults from reading upon the non-fiction topics of most interest.

If chapter v¹ of the full report is read in addition to this article, the reader should be able to identify subjects that are most interesting to any group or groups of adult readers. When such subjects are identified, the author, publisher, bookseller, librarian, teacher, or student of reading should find it easier to determine what particular titles or types of reading will make the

¹ The chapter referred to contains specific directions for obtaining the interest patterns of any group or groups of general readers.

strongest appeal to any given reader or type of reader. He will also secure information which is certain to increase his familiarity with the important characteristics of the groups themselves. This method of evaluating and comparing group-attitudes toward important contemporary issues and events should prove a useful tool in social research.

DOUGLAS WAPLES

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE DENTITION OF *EQUUS DONATUS*

DONATIONS from private benefactors have played an important part in the history of the American library.

If anyone were to map our whole library system and retrace upon it not only gifts themselves but also every tax-supported element which originated in a conditional gift, he would quite certainly traverse much of the original chart. The very names of our libraries, civic and academic, bear witness to our past dependence upon private benefactions for the establishment and support of these institutions. Nor have we reason to suppose that this state of affairs will suffer change in the immediate future. Wealthy citizens of this generation, no less than their fathers, may be expected to make testamentary provision whereby new libraries will be founded and old ones strengthened in their endeavor to meet the book needs of their respective communities.

The very conditions of American civilization are such that, if we have libraries at all, a great part of them must come to us from the hands of private benefactors. Fully two-thirds of the life that we have led upon this continent, so far as it was literary at all, has left but a scanty deposit of books. From the seven earlier centuries of modern civilization, which is our own past no less than our cousins', we have almost no cultural heirlooms. Now no society, unless it is decadent, has ever succeeded in directing social action toward the monuments of its past. Indeed, the more vigorous its intellectual life, the more imperfect, relatively, are a society's social activities in that direction. Its enterprises tend always to outrun its communal organization. A vital society may vote generous or grudging support for the preservation of its antiquities or the exploration of its origins, if coerced by enthusiastic individuals, but the initiative and the labor are never communal. So, then, no American library can expect to turn the serious attention of its community to the liquidation of its accrued deficit in books. Under pioneer condi-

tions few books were acquired, and, at best, only in numbers sufficient for a small population and a limited area. Expansion of our settled territory and the multiplication of our people have rendered its inherited book equipment still further inadequate to each successive generation. And, on the other hand, the rapidity of our social evolution in respect to literary culture has made these inadequacies the more keenly felt.

The normal life-cycle of a communal library will include only a series of metamorphoses, each of which will be conditioned by, and lag appreciably behind, corresponding growths in the book requirements of its public. In a new community, working under frontier conditions, the general need for books will be slight, though it may be poignantly felt by certain individuals. Only after schools have been established and secondary education begun, perhaps not until the more well-to-do have attained a modicum of leisure, will the common need for books force the community to appropriate a part of its funds to the establishment of a public library. This at first will contain mainly factual material which is correlated closely either with the curriculum of the schools or with the topics which hold the attention of coeval society. A supply of popular fiction may also be included, though this will be regarded by those most concerned either apologetically, as a vulgar concession unavoidable in democratic society, or cynically, as a political bribe offered by an otherwise respectable institution. Later, as the community matures, its book requirements will grow in extent and intensity. With the solidification of culture will appear a separation and crystallization of intellectual interests. These will give rise to a genuine demand for books which are more and more remote from the immediacies of daily life and from the routine curricula of the community's educational standards. But throughout its life the growth of the library will be determined by public needs. From the first encyclopedia to the last acquisition, be this never so exotic or recondite, every volume must be entitled to its place on the library shelves by past, present, or anticipated future need of the communal public.

In America the social changes which determine these succes-

sive stages of growth in the library have everywhere proceeded rapidly. Community action could not keep pace with them. Unless private individuals had entered the field to found complete libraries, to coax communal action by conditional gifts, and to incite rival establishments, it is very possible that large areas of our country would still lack completely the library facilities which they now enjoy. It would be difficult indeed to overestimate the beneficent influences that we owe in the library world to the donations of individual public-spirited citizens. At the same time one cannot but feel, as he views the American library system as a whole, that such gifts have not invariably attained a desirable standard in social efficiency. It would therefore seem that these donations present aspects which the librarian will do well to study closely. From an evaluation of present available data he may derive principles for his future guidance. The problem, of course, is a broad one. Within the limits of the present paper it is impossible to do more than to suggest its scope and to explore one of its minor phases.

Gifts to libraries will fall naturally into different patterns of classification according to the point of view from which they are examined. A gift may be made by one person, or it may consist of pooled contributions from many. It may be voluntary, or it may result from social highwaymanship. It may be given to found a new institution or for the support of one already existing. It may liquidate an accrued deficit or widen the scope of a present work, or it may inaugurate a new activity. It may be administered under lay direction, or it may be controlled by professional administration. It may be limited to the erection of a building or to the acquisition of books, or it may, though apparently this has not yet occurred, be consecrated to staff salaries.

But the most fundamental distinction relates not to origin, field, administration, or purpose, but to the form of the gift itself. Here four distinct types emerge: (*a*) expendible funds, (*b*) capital endowment, (*c*) books and endowment, and (*d*) books alone. Now even a superficial survey of the field would seem to indicate that among the older donations (these alone have been

long enough at work to reveal their tendencies) there is a gradation in social efficiency that follows closely this fourfold division by form. Money gifts seem to have been the most successful; books the least efficient. Endowment, more particularly that of academic libraries, has not seldom retarded or prevented outright normal communal action. While the recipient generation has been benefited with a library before its time, its successors have correspondingly suffered in the inheritance of an inadequate equipment.

A detailed study of the various forms of library benefactions, their workings, and their results, will undoubtedly reveal the causes for these variations in social efficiency. Such a study, presumably, would be a valuable contribution to the general theory of librarianship. The present occasion, however, offers scope for only a generalized discussion of the comparative failure of donations which consist of gifts of books to a public library.

Whenever any considerable number of books have been turned over by an individual to communal ownership, they have consisted, nearly always, of a collector's rarities. Consequently, in the total corpus of books contained in our American libraries, the rare-book collections form a conspicuous group. No one, perhaps, can estimate, even roughly, just how many there are, but certainly any bookman whose experience includes personal contacts with both European and American libraries can bear witness that the latter have an astonishingly large proportion of rare and expensive editions. These collections, moreover, are still growing at a constantly accelerating rate of increase.

The cult of rarities, however worthy in itself, has few points of contact with the library's main social function. A library, as we have seen, may in its maturity have genuine need for books which happen to be collectors' prizes, but this is usually a chance coincidence. In the main there is no direct correlation between bibliophily and scholarship.

Rare books fall into two classes, according to their age. Those of the modern group seldom offer anything to the scholar which

he cannot find in ordinary copies. Indeed, a collector's point of value, such as the misprint on page 27, is often to the student a mere blemish. Similarly, in modern book production, the original electrotype plates are still in use for the last edition; the collector will scorn anything but a first, while the scholar is fully satisfied with any equivalent issue.

In the group of early printed books, however, the rarities seem more valuable in library usage. Here the collector seldom collects for age alone, but almost always with regard for historical and literary interest. It is therefore in the volumes of this class that we find donated collections making their largest contribution to the library's principal activity, the promotion of scholarship.

But rare books can be used for other purposes than mere perusal. In some of our larger libraries the bibliographical museum is an important element in the library's service to society. Our cultural life finds emotional values connected with certain books, and these values our libraries cannot ignore. In any large group of rarities will be found monuments of literature to inspire our reverence, association copies and lifetime editions of much-loved authors to stir our affections, books that are works of art in their physical form to appeal to our aesthetic emotions, and bookish curiosities to tickle our humor. Whenever a library acquires such books, it may well utilize them as a communal outlet of the collector's instinct which exists, if only in rudimentary form, in the heart of every bookman. But this will remain always a secondary phase of the library's function. No sympathetic librarian will object to a gift of such books to his library. He will welcome them. But he must protest vigorously if the gift involves any curtailment of the library's primary functions. That gifts of this kind do often result in such a curtailment will be apparent to any candid observer. On the one hand, they have isolated large endowments for a continuous increase of our holdings in rarities as such. They have also frozen enormous investments in books which under a most liberal interpretation of the library's office give but a trifling return in public benefit. And, finally, by their dazzle they have blinded our eyes to enormous gaps in our library equipment.

The self-confidence shown by this generation in arranging the library program for its successors is not the least astonishing trait in our temperament. Where one great philanthropist plans for an immediate expenditure of his gifts and a few others have endowed corporations with liberty of action in the light of future needs, several hundred donors with a narrower outlook have devoted their library endowments to an endless increase of their former book collections. Since, in the main, the collecting cult is narrowly conventionalized, this results in an unnecessary and undesirable duplication of our present holdings.

Under the limitations of these same conventions the rivalry of collectors for certain books has been carried to irrational extremes. It is not pleasant, for example, to realize that, in the various copies of the forty-two line Bible which are scattered about the country, our American libraries have a frozen endowment equivalent to an annual income exceeding \$100,000. Of the thirty-six line Bible, which is much rarer, and which, as some of us suspect, may be an earlier edition, America has but one small fragment. In many other ways our library equipment in rare books, which is, in effect, chosen for us by collectors for reasons which are not related to the library, does not contain the material that is best suited for library uses. An ordinary fifteenth-century manuscript containing a Latin theological treatise written on paper in a crabbed cursive hand may be worth only forty dollars. A collector will not look at it. This type of manuscript is almost unknown in American libraries. Yet it will be inestimably more valuable in the bibliographical museum of a reference library than an illuminated Book of Hours, worth perhaps a thousand dollars. Every collector has from one to a dozen of these, and in consequence American libraries have several hundred. But the forty-dollar manuscript is a typical book of the period preceding the invention of printing. It therefore portrays vividly the cultural advance achieved by that invention. The illuminated Book of Hours is not a book at all, but a portion of the church-going attire of a fine lady of its day. When exhibited, it is more likely than not to confirm the common romantic delusion that medieval life was utterly

beautiful. A series of one hundred books printed between 1480 and 1530 may cost altogether less than five thousand dollars. Yet they may be selected so as to illustrate the historic evolution of the book from the bare text to full modern equipment of bibliographical aids to the reader—title-page, dedication, preface, contents, footnotes, index, pagination, running titles, and the like. Such a series is usually vastly more valuable in a library than two incunabula printed before 1470 and worth, perhaps, five thousand dollars apiece.

But the most unfortunate reaction from our rare-book collections is the delusive impression that they seem often to produce in the minds of our future library benefactors. Because our libraries contain all these rare books of fabulous market value, it is commonly assumed that America is excellently equipped with the earlier literature of our civilization. This is far from being the true situation. We have many rarities—one is almost tempted to say, more than we can possibly use. In the ordinary books printed before 1800 we are poor indeed. For example, in the library with which the writer is best acquainted there are endowments of certain rare-book collections. As a result of this artificial stimulus this library has among its half-million volumes approximately 1,625 books printed before 1500, and 1,700 printed between 1501 and 1600. Of these sixteenth-century books at least seven hundred are early Americana and similar rarities. In contrast to this an analysis of the catalogues of the British Museum seems to indicate for its holdings 2,500 incunabula and 15,000 sixteenth-century books per half-million titles. Of these less than one-tenth could be regarded as collectors' rarities, in contrast with nearly 50 per cent in this American library.

One way of formulating a reasonable ideal for American reference libraries would be to set as a goal for the system the accumulation of a total corpus of books that will meet the needs of our research workers in everything except manuscripts and printed volumes of extreme rarity. For these they must always visit the European libraries. This goal will be practicable only for our library system as a whole. In all of Europe there are not

enough floating copies of the earlier books to supply very many of our American libraries. To achieve such a goal it is likewise obvious that there must be a development of a more willing spirit of co-operation. This will necessitate on the one side a breaking down of our narrow provincialism in institutional loyalty, and on the other the establishment of regional depositories of the more seldom-used volumes. If librarians as a class were less hesitant about looking their gift horses in the mouth, perhaps the public spirit of some of our future library benefactors could be turned in these directions.

It is no simple matter to change a social custom. Society, like the individual, has habitual patterns of action to realize its instinctive volitions. Once established, such habits are not easily uprooted. Generalized criticism has little force as a reforming agent. Before the library can hope to turn the philanthropic impulses of its benefactors to new programs, it must demonstrate the necessity. For this precise data must be accumulated.

The present discussion in general terms will have been wholly futile unless it is read quite simply as a plea for such a critical and realistic study of the functional value of rare-book collections in our library system. Here personal judgments of one observer are not of great significance. The present writer's sole purpose in recording his opinion is to point out that these collections do involve problems of serious import for practical librarianship. Obviously their solution can be discovered only through co-operative professional research.

PIERCE BUTLER

THE NEWBERRY LIBRARY

THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

PIERCE BUTLER was born at Clarendon Hill, Illinois, in 1886. He was graduated from Dickinson College with the Ph.B. degree and, after further study at Columbia University and Union Seminary, took his B.D. and Ph.D. degrees from Hartford Seminary. Since 1916 he has been associated with the Newberry Library at Chicago, as reference assistant, head of book selection, and curator of the Wing (typographical) Foundation. As a lecturer he has been connected with the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago since its foundation. Contributor to the *American journal of psychology*, *Publishers' weekly*, and other journals, he is a member of the editorial board of *The Colophon*, and was a compiler of *A Check list of fifteenth century books* (Chicago, 1919; 2d ed., 1924). He is a member of the Gutenberg Gesellschaft (Mainz), the Bibliographical Society of London, the Society of Typographic Arts, the Library Institute, and other learned societies.

CARLETON BRUNS JOECKEL was born in Wisconsin in 1886. He obtained his A.B. degree from the University of Wisconsin, his B.L.S. from the New York State Library School, and his M.A. for work in political science at the University of Michigan. Having held various positions in public and university libraries, he is now professor of library science at Michigan.

ALFRED S. LEWERENZ was born in Rochester, New York, the son of an officer in the United States Navy. Having served in the World War as a lieutenant of field artillery, Mr. Lewerenz became a student at the University of Southern California, from which he was graduated in 1921 with an A.B. degree in sociology. In 1923, he took the Certificate for Social Work, and in 1927, his M.A. degree from the same institution. Further study at the University of Vienna has qualified Mr. Lewerenz as a competent observer of educational conditions throughout the world, with especial reference to the Orient and the reformed schools of Austria. Previously connected with the California Bureau of Juvenile Research, he has since 1924 held his present position as statistician for the Psychology and Educational Research Division of the Los Angeles City Schools.

CHARLES B. SHAW was born in Toledo, Ohio, in 1894. From Clark University he received his A.B. and M.A. degrees. He has held

instructorships in English at the University of Maine and Goucher College. Having attended New York State Library School, 1919-20, he was from 1920 to 1927 the librarian of North Carolina College for Women. Since 1927 he has been librarian of Swarthmore College. His professional appointments have included the presidency of the North Carolina Library Association, membership on the A.L.A. Editorial Board, and others.

(The foregoing sketch of Mr. Shaw was inadvertently omitted from the biographical material appearing in the January, 1931, issue of the *Library quarterly*, to which Mr. Shaw was a contributor ["The Compilation of 'A List of books for college libraries,' " pp. 72-78]. We therefore take this occasion to present him to our readers.)

AUBREY H. STARKE was graduated from Harvard University with the A.B. degree in 1925 and the M.A. degree in 1927. At Harvard he served as an instructor in English, and was later a member of the faculty of Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, in the same capacity. He has appeared in print chiefly as a reviewer of books, occasionally as the author of a critical study in *American literature*, published by the Duke University Press.

DOUGLAS WAPLES: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, I (1931), 90-91.

COMMUNICATION

THE Bibliothèque Nationale has recently issued a list of its printed catalogues, comprising about 125 titles. Many of the items appeared before 1900, although a fair proportion bear a postwar date. American libraries attempting to build research collections in various fields will do well to write to the Bibliothèque Nationale for the *Liste des catalogues de la Bibliothèque Nationale (exemplaires en vente)*, 1930, and secure the titles desired while they are still in print. The Columbia University Library found, on checking the list, that it needed thirty-three of the items.

C. C. WILLIAMSON, *Director of Libraries, Columbia University*

THE COVER DESIGN

THE device of the serpent on a rod, with an intertwining olive branch, has allusion evidently to the rods of Moses and Aaron, mentioned in the book of Exodus. The Greek motto signifies "For the good king, the strong warrior."

Prior to the French Revolution, this device was employed at Paris by the royal printers, among them Robert Estienne, Charles Estienne, Bienné, Guillaume Morel, Frédéric Morel II, Prévosteau, and Adrien Turnèbe. It was first used in a polyglot version of the Bible, printed under royal patronage by Robert Estienne in 1529. Though later used by other members of the Estienne family, it must not be regarded as an Estienne device, being used only for works published under royal auspices or with royal license.

The first of the royal printers, Robert Estienne, was the most distinguished printer of his family. He was the second son of Henri, the founder of the house, and the son-in-law of Jodocus Badius Ascensius, from whom he derived his fondness for Greek and Hebrew studies. The declining years of his life were spent at Geneva, whither he retired in 1552, in order to enjoy the society of fellow-members of the Huguenot faith. His own device, like that which he designed for royal use, is biblical in its origin. Moses is shown, bearded, mantled, and barefooted, before an illuminated tree, upon the branches of which appears the motto, "Noli altum sapere, sed time," from the Vulgate version of the Bible, Romans 11:20.

LESTER CONDIT

REVIEWS

University librarianship. By GEORGE HERBERT BUSHNELL. London: Grafton & Co., 1930. Pp. 219. 7s. 6d.

The author of this book is librarian of St. Andrews University, one of the "ancient" universities of Great Britain. The library which he supervises contains some 250,000 volumes, serving about 500 students and a university staff of perhaps 50 or 75 members. That Mr. Bushnell is an able librarian may not be doubted. His concern for and familiarity with the smallest details of the workings of a university library are shown on every page. Unfortunately, the forty-odd subjects which he takes up are disposed of in such inconclusive fashion that the book can hardly be considered a genuine contribution to librarianship. And the subjects which he treats of, furthermore, if not quite tedious, are subjects which have been mulled over so often that only with difficulty can one whip up much interest in them. Some of them, alas! are very trivial subjects indeed. The chapters, few of which are more than three or four pages long, have headings ranging from "How to remove book labels" to "Ethics."

There is, one hastens to note, nothing trivial about the subject of ethics. Even so, the much-discussed "Code of ethics for librarians" fails to impress one as a major professional problem. Reflecting upon the legal profession, and then recalling its magnificent code, or codes, of ethics, one wonders if these men are really serious who insist, as Mr. Bushnell does, that full professional status is unthinkable without such a code. The once rather widespread concern for "professional status," too, is shared by the author of this book. Your reviewer, it must be confessed, very much preferred to the chapter on "Ethics" the one on "How to remove book labels." There are several such chapters containing handy bits of information, and several chapters which do not belong in the book at all.

It is unfortunate that this is so, for the remark made above—that Mr. Bushnell is an able librarian—was made in complete sincerity. One would have welcomed a more extended account of library reorganization and recataloguing, subjects obviously close to Mr. Bushnell's heart and subjects upon which he is unusually well qualified to speak. Had the author thus devoted more space to matters in which he appears to be especially interested and informed, and upon which, as he himself observes, so little has been written, the book would have been more important.

THEODORE NORTON

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN LIBRARY

Classification, theoretical and practical. Together with an appendix containing an essay toward a bibliographical history of systems of classification. By ERNEST CUSHING RICHARDSON. 3d. ed. ("Montogue publications.") New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1930. Pp. xvi+228. \$1.00.

Dr. Richardson's well-known book on classification originated in lectures delivered at the New York State Library School over thirty years ago. The present, the third, edition, is in the main a reissue without revision of the second edition of 1912, but with three appendixes which contain new material of particular value for libraries and library schools. These appendixes are: (1) "Classification—1876-1926," a paper read at the Fiftieth Anniversary of the American Library Association. (2) "List of books on library classification," prepared by Amelia B. Deans, assistant in the Library, Department of State, Washington. (3) "Published cards," including Library of Congress cards representing books dealing, wholly or in part, with classification.

Dr. Richardson, with the possible exception of Mr. Walter S. Biscoe, has had as long and as varied a contact with classification of books in libraries as any American librarian now living. He assisted Mr. Biscoe in applying the Decimal Classification to Amherst College Library about the time that the American Library Association was organized in Philadelphia, and has been continuously in the harness ever since, most of the time in charge of large and important university or reference libraries, and, although he has been a busy executive, he has never failed to keep in closest touch with the bibliographic aspects of library administration. Not only is he responsible for one of the most important books on classification, but he has made valuable contributions to the literature on history of libraries, serving also on the Committee on Cataloging Rules which brought about the agreement with the British Library Association in 1907. He has been otherwise active in writing and publishing to such an extent that a bibliography of his writings will make a sizable publication. Perhaps one of the younger librarians or library school students now coming to the front may be willing to undertake the task. It is not without its difficulties, but should prove worth while in that it will furnish a bird's-eye view of American library development for the last half-century.

No one could be better fitted than Dr. Richardson to write on classification, 1876-1926. We who have read his book, or have had an opportunity to discuss with its author matters relating to classification and notation, know that, due in part perhaps to early associations, he has strong leanings toward a decimal classification and a pure decimal notation. On the other hand, he has indicated both in the present book and elsewhere that he does not consider the D.C. as it stands suitable for university libraries. At Princeton he proceeded to work out a special classification; and when in 1910 the University of Chicago was considering a general system, he strongly urged a similar course. It is not therefore from a desire to please the majority, or for fear of

injury to a cause, that he omits references to articles or discussions on the D.C. that many would have liked to see included. The undersigned believes that the great majority of American librarians, that is, librarians of public libraries, favor this special system. Likely, this holds true also of the British librarians. There are, nevertheless, a number, particularly among the librarians of university and large reference libraries, who will miss from the present book reference to, and discussion of, some of the most serious objections to the D.C. which have so far appeared in print. One need mention only a few of these, e.g., Leopold De Lisle in the *Journal des savants*, 1896; Karl Dziatzko in his *Über Generalkatalogisierung*, "Sammlung bibliothekswissenschaftlicher Arbeiten," 11; Otto Hartwig in *Cosmopolis*, Vol. VI (1897); statements of men like J. S. Billings, Professors Darboux, Deniker, Armstrong, Dziatzko, in the discussions on the International Scientific Catalog (*Proceedings of the Royal Society*, 1896-97).

That some of the arguments presented by these men and the critics who preceded them have influenced the decisions of American university and reference libraries in their choice of classification systems, goes without saying. The reasons against the adoption of the D.C. by large and scholarly libraries has been stated most bluntly and clearly by Dziatzko, and the undersigned knows from his personal experience that when the University of Wisconsin Library selected Cutter's Expansive Classification in 1893, discussions tending to point out the weaknesses of the D.C. for a university library had much to do with the decision. Similar arguments must have actuated Harvard University Library about the same time, when it decided to develop a special classification of its own, so also McGill University a little later in choosing Cutter's Classification, the New York Public Library in 1896, and the Library of Congress in 1897, and Yale University in 1904, all deciding to prepare special schemes, in part new, in part based on the classifications of Cutter and Hartwig. Later on, Cornell, Princeton, the University of California, University of Michigan, Ohio University, University of Chicago, National Library of Wales, the public libraries of St. Paul and Edinburgh, and many other university, college, government, and reference libraries followed the example. (Cf. annual reports of Librarian of Congress for list of libraries adopting the classification of that library.) In fact, it is difficult to point to a single large university or reference library in America which since 1893 has adopted the D.C.

That this system furnishes a convenient apparatus for thousands of small and popular libraries is readily conceded; but on the other hand, the fact must not be lost sight of that for larger and more scholarly libraries which aim to continue close classification on the shelves, it must prove an intolerable strait-jacket—more and more intolerable as new subjects come up, or new phases or developments in old subjects demand expansion and further subdivision. This is a point which the protagonists of the system, in their mis-

sionary zeal, have failed to bring out. Here and abroad enthusiastic supporters who see in it the means to a universal classification have, either by urging its adoption by libraries large and small, scholarly and popular, or by their silence as to weaknesses alluded to, placed themselves in a position where they must assume some responsibility for not only certain of the expensive reorganizations witnessed during the last thirty or forty years, but for others pretty sure to follow.

Aside from the failure to bring out adequately the weakness of the D.C. for certain types of libraries, occasional misprints and minor errors in reference, unavoidable in any extensive bibliographical publication, unless the compiler has unlimited time and patience at his disposal and proceeds with extreme caution taking nothing for granted, the book is worthy of high praise and forms a most valuable addition to the sources from which teachers and students in library schools, as well as librarians engaged in classification, must draw much of their information. That the author emphasizes the practical aspects of his subject adds to its value for both teacher, student, and librarian.

J. C. M. HANSON

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Reference work. By JAMES I. WYER. ("Library curriculum studies.") Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. xii+315. \$2.50.

This book was one of the first of the "Library curriculum studies" issued by the American Library Association. Written with the principal object of setting forth contemporary methods in reference work, the book is beyond criticism. The author's long career in the library profession, both as teacher and administrator, has amply prepared him for a task of this nature, and his book will undoubtedly be a welcome complement to Miss Mudge's *Guide to reference books* in introducing prospective librarians to the principles of reference work.

Mr. Wyer would himself be the last to consider his book the final word on the subject. This is evident in the distinction he has drawn between what he calls the "conservative, moderate (most nearly representing current practice), and liberal or ideal" conceptions of reference work. The book, then, is in the main a representation of the moderate conception, and any criticism it calls forth is not so much the fault of the author as it may be a shortcoming on the part of the object he portrays.

The book is divided into three main sections, entitled: "Materials. The World of print"; "Methods. The Use of print"; and "Administration." The first section includes a discussion of the more general types of reference materials and offers criteria for their evaluation. There is also consideration of such matters as periodicals, pamphlets, newspapers, and more ephemeral materials,

and finally, how resources may be multiplied through interlibrary co-operation. The section on "Administration" includes chapters on personnel, inter-departmental comity, training the public, and rooms and furniture. Thus, two of the three sections of the book are not directly concerned with reference work as such, though the problems they suggest are certainly of great importance.

There remains, then, the section of the book on the use of print. The contents include a chapter each on handling reference questions, fact-finding and material-finding, and research and the library; two chapters illustrating the application of these principles to special subjects and fields; and four chapters extending the discussion of reference work to public, university and college, school, and special libraries. Stated more simply, there are some 45 pages in this section treating reference work intensively and 86 pages treating it extensively. It should be noted further that the treatment here designated "intensive" includes such matters as courtesy and tact in meeting the public, keeping statistics, and a discussion of new demands upon the library. Although this type of information is worth knowing, and although an extensive treatment is valuable in vitalizing abstract principles, there can be no overlooking the fact that the major principles of library reference work compactly fit within less than one-seventh of the entire book. This in itself means nothing, but when one thinks of reference work as the branch of librarianship primarily concerned with making library resources available for furnishing information or for aiding in some particular study or research, one feels that either something has been left out of the treatment or the definition has been interpreted in a very narrow sense.

The discrepancy may be this: the author tacitly assumes a definite type of reference question which may be answered by the methods and instruments he cites. Indeed, he says that "most library work is fact-finding, or at most, material-finding as distinguished from research." This means, I take it, that the reference department of the library is not called upon for much beyond the fact-finding type of data. So far, so good; but is it not possible that the library has confused the order of precedence; may it not be that the library, in failing to prepare for reference work beyond fact-finding, has tacitly assumed that the demand for reference assistance beyond fact-finding does not exist, or at least does not exist as a library function? Is there not a possibility that the library receives requests for the type of assistance it is prepared to offer, and thus fails to consider the thousands who do not come to the library precisely because they know in advance that the library is not equipped to satisfy their needs and they seek elsewhere, or permit their needs to go unfilled? Perhaps this is the reason Mr. Wyer finds the reference department but little used for research purposes. One does not attend a band concert expecting to hear a symphony, and one does not get very far in a research project with the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and the *Readers' guide*.

Now the demands of others than fact-finders are not altogether lost sight of by Mr. Wyer. To quote him on this point:

Any person within the area served by a free public library is privileged to use its reference department without apology, excuse, explanation, introduction or red-tape. It follows that obligations of the public library can be measured only in equally liberal terms. It must literally be ready to serve everybody. To do this, it should know many more things about its community and the people who live there than any other local agency. . . . The alert reference department will know by instinct, by absorption, or will have on file, records of all local interests and institutions, with their histories, their changing status and personnel.

The first part of this quotation is an excellent statement of the duties of the reference department to the community. The final sentence, however, is not so clear. For unfortunately, the instinct Mr. Wyer talks about simply does not exist, the absorption he posits is at best a nebulous process, and the maintenance of "records of all local interests and institutions" is a rather large order to be so summarily disposed of. Earlier in the book there is a slightly more extended treatment of this last point, but it is prefaced by the statement that "there are persons with a palpable flair for community knowledge. They absorb the place-spirit unconsciously; they get its atmosphere with the air they breathe; they somehow always know without ever having consciously learned." And then, "for the cheer and comfort of those flair-less others, there follows a list of rites, ceremonies, and devices, warranted, if faithfully observed, to prevail against the most self-centered immunity."

One might overlook the somewhat cavalier manner in which the subject is treated; one cannot as readily accept the author's prescription for community knowledge. It is difficult to see how such activities as reading a local newspaper, making speeches before local groups, and belonging to local organizations contribute very much toward defining the interests and needs of specific groups, which a thoroughgoing reference department might meet. Some of the other prescribed activities are considerably better; for example, reading community surveys and other books about the city, becoming acquainted with dominating industries, and noting current reference questions, but these hardly exhaust—indeed, barely approach—the possibilities.

Perhaps at this point there might be indicated one or two things reference librarians could do to tap the interests of their community. A fairly standard practice in all reference departments is the maintenance of statistics covering the questions that are asked. These are useful, as Mr. Wyer says, in indicating current interests. Suppose, now, that the reference department undertook to collect the questions that are *not* asked of it, but are asked of others. For example, there is always some demand for travel information, political information, information relating to income taxes—in a word, information about every subject that people are interested in. To answer these questions there exist a considerable number of professional consulting agencies; legal and business consultants, travel and educational bureaus, advisers in prob-

lems of the home, dispensers of political information, and so on. If the library were systematically to collect from these agencies the questions asked of them, it would have a great mass of raw data, which, when classified and interpreted, would give the library more information on what people want to know than it could ever learn by guesswork or haphazard methods. It could then evaluate the books in the reference collection in terms of their ability to furnish the type of information wanted, to say nothing of evaluating the personnel for their ability to handle such questions.

To the reviewer it seems that the study of the community is the true basis for reference work. It is indeed important that the alert reference department be alive to the interests and demands of various groups within the community, but the methods for ascertaining them are not always easily indicated. Much hard work will have to be done before sufficiently accurate techniques for measuring interests and demands of specific groups are available, but it must none the less be done if the library is to be, as it purports, of optimum value to the community.

LEON CARNOVSKY

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Brief guide to League of Nations publications. By LEAGUE OF NATIONS LIBRARY. Geneva: Imprimerie Vitte, 1929. Bilingual. Pp. 32.

Key to League of Nations documents placed on public sale, 1920-29. By MARIE J. CARROLL. Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1930. Pp. 340.

"The publications of the League of Nations have established a bad reputation among librarians and others interested in the troublesome task of their cataloging, classifying and binding." This quotation is from the Foreword of the Carroll Key noted above and is made by the present librarian of the League. That it is a moderate statement is proved by the large amount of correspondence, discussion, and perplexity among American librarians touching the most effective organization of League publications for quick and easy use. For this ambiguity and confusion there seem to be several reasons.

At first (strange enough it seems to librarians) the League's publications were not printed for public use. This would seem to be a hang-over from the old diplomacy of "secret agreements secretly arrived at." It seems incredible that it was not immediately apparent to League officials that its printed documents would be in request at once by libraries the world over for information and study. Even if these tremendously interesting and significant comments on world-affairs were designed for the sole use of officials of the League, it still would have been easy to devise a system of notation much simpler and clearer than the awkward and cumbersome combinations of letters, arabic numbers,

roman numerals, curves, diagonal dashes, and periods which were adopted apparently with little study or consideration.

And when libraries and others began eagerly to seek the League's printed matter, the confusion was only made worse by further revisions of or additions to the already obscure notation until at last the Library of the League compiled first the *Brief guide*, followed from the library of the World Peace Foundation by Miss Carroll's admirable *Key* as aids to enable puzzled librarians to bring some order out of the mass of publications which the League was pouring upon them.

The *Brief guide* describes the several series of periodical and non-periodical publications, lists the agents from which they may be had, and offers clear, simple, practical suggestions for their library classification and use.

The *Key* supplements the *Brief guide* by providing an introduction to the history of the League's publishing activities and an account of its present system of document numbering. Then follows a nearly complete chronological list of documents which is really the first satisfactory bibliography of them. The mere reading of this list affords an impressive view of the manifold activities of the League in its first decade and of the official machinery which carries them on. To this is added a helpful list of official publication and sales numbers. This *Key* is variously useful, and the numerical index of official numbers (pp. 316 ff.) enables one to find title and date of a document when documentation is the sole citation given. The list of meetings and conferences (pp. 233-315) is accompanied by much useful historical matter with further helpful references to the official journal.

The *Key* is not, of course, a subject index; but the detailed list of League publications (pp. 13-232), with its grouping under sixteen broad headings, its full titles, and the official numbers, can be made to serve, when used with other sections of the book, as a fairly serviceable subject index.

Assuredly the library staff of the World Peace Foundation (the American agents for League publications) deserves a grateful vote of thanks from the many American librarians who for some years have been struggling to whip an important series of documents into order and serviceableness.

JAMES I. WYER

NEW YORK STATE LIBRARY

Library of Congress. An account of government document bibliography in the United States and elsewhere. By JAMES B. CHILDS, Chief, Division of Documents. Revised July, 1930. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1930. Pp. 57.

The first edition of this useful pamphlet appeared in 1927 and contained 39 pages. It was confessedly tentative, "printed as manuscript." In the revised form, it has 57 pages. In the new printing the few pages of text are al-

most unchanged. The additions are to the bibliographies. In the lists of documents of our states and foreign countries, there are represented 33 states and 59 countries, as against 31 states and 48 countries in the first printing.

There are, however, still some of the surprising omissions which were noticeable in the first edition. A place should have been found for Adelaide R. Hasse's monumental *Index to United States documents relating to foreign affairs*, for Thayer and Goodwin's *Index to congressional committee hearings*, and for the invaluable "Service monographs," of the Institute for Government Research.

The scope of the section "Departmental lists and catalogs," clearly a selection of the most important items, could usefully have been extended to include indexes as well as lists and catalogues. In the state lists, again, some important titles are omitted. Owen's *Bibliography of Alabama* is included; why not his equally admirable *Bibliography of Mississippi*? And again, why not Bongartz' *Check list of Rhode Island laws*?

The pamphlet is carefully compiled, and those parts of it which relate to our federal and state documents will be especially useful as the latest such compilation. The pages relating to foreign countries are of less moment here, because very few libraries attempt extensive collections of foreign documents.

JAMES I. WYER

NEW YORK STATE LIBRARY

Library service for children. By EFFIE L. POWER. ("Library curriculum studies.") Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. xii+320. \$2.75.

The author has divided her work into an introductory chapter on the history of library work for children, a second chapter on early children's books, four on the problem of selecting the collection, one on planning and equipping the children's room, three on special phases of room work (circulating books, answering reference questions, and guiding reading), one on the adolescent reader and his needs, another on bringing the library to the child where the child cannot be brought to the library, and two final chapters on departmental administration and preparatory training.

The book summarizes well much information useful to prospective children's librarians. It will for the most part be useful not only to the student in library school but to the untrained assistant as well. Such readers will learn from the book what contacts to make and how to make them; what policies to formulate and follow; what procedures and skills to learn; what sources to consult and where to obtain them. Before they have turned many pages they will find themselves in a highly receptive and sympathetic mood. Their confidence will be won by the author's familiarity with their problems, a familiarity which derives from a wide range of experience.

It is from this experience and from the practice of selected libraries that the author draws the content of her book. These sources are undoubtedly sufficient for the purpose, namely, to acquaint prospective children's librarians with the best current practice. But where the best practice leaves something to be desired, the deficiencies should perhaps be brought to the attention of library students more vividly. The chapters discussing problems of book selection imply such deficiencies most clearly. For example, we find on page 31 an outline of "criteria" for judging new books. The third of the seven sections comprising the outline (adapted from a list of "criteria" for adult books) is as follows:

3. Subject and content

Subject

Leading idea

Secondary ideas

Purpose and point of view of author

Truthfulness

Ethical influence (wholesome, uncertain, pernicious)

Children's interest in subject (basis)

Nowhere in the book, or elsewhere, does the evidence needed to justify some of these criteria exist. For example, librarians of much experience cannot always agree upon their interpretations of such elements as "ethical influence," for the excellent reason that nobody knows with sufficient precision for purposes of book selection what the ethical influence of any book is upon young readers. We may therefore wonder what can be expected of novices.

The seventh section of this outline reads:

7. Readability (suitability to age or grade groups, elements of difficulty)

Appeal to children's interests (general)

Recalling the work of Carleton Washburn and others to determine difficulty and age levels of books on a more reliable basis than that of personal opinion, the reader expects at this point to find some reference to their, or to similar, researches. But their techniques have yet to be adopted by the library. The writer does not mention them. If one reads farther in the book in the effort to discover what library methods are used in grading materials, he is disappointed. For, in the specimen analysis of a literary classic according to the outline (the only point-by-point analysis cited in the book), the discussion centering around the seventh section is a relative judgment which declares the edition in question to have been adapted and rearranged, the proper names simplified, thus adding "greatly to the attractiveness and readability of the book." Suitable for whom and attractive at what stage are not brought out, which certainly are questions to which this section of the outline is addressed.

As for disclosing the appeal of a book to children's interests, no one within or without the library field knows what method to tell inexperienced reviewers to use. The problem has not yet been worked out, and it is high time it were.

To adopt the suggestion which the author gives in one of the pages, namely, that a code of evaluation be established by applying the outline to standard books for children and then to new books, does not seem either a valid or an empirically satisfactory substitute. Even though the critics may come to perfect agreement concerning the book under discussion, it does not follow that the youthful readers for whom the book is intended will reach a similar conclusion.

Again and again we come upon similarly vague criteria. In the discussion of nursery rhymes and nonsense verse, in the choice of history for juvenile enlightenment, in matters pertaining to printing, paper, binding, and illustrations, the reader is told there are suitable books and unsuitable books, but the recognition of each apparently comes only with increased experience. No objective standards are supplied, and yet for some of these at least we have very definite conclusions. Witness the work of Buckingham on size of type in this particular.

The author recognizes the need for objective evidence. She cites occasionally studies which bear upon children's reading, and in her final chapter she mentions some eight library subjects and problems which invite research. "Until laboratory techniques are brought to bear on the influence of the public library on children's reading interests and habits, there can be no secure judgment" (p. 305). It is interesting to note that two of these subjects bear upon the questions of the ethical influence of books and of children's reading interests, points which had perhaps better be omitted from standards until evidence becomes available.

If the value of the chapters on book selection is questioned, this criticism should not be applied to other features of the book. The children's librarian will turn often to the bibliographies appended to each chapter and from them will receive valuable suggestions for rounding out her collection. She will probably be stimulated to greater zeal by the author's enthusiasm for her chosen work. Undoubtedly, she will find very helpful the collected information concerning library practices under varying conditions of resources, environment, and youthful patrons.

HELEN L. BUTLER

LINDBLOM HIGH SCHOOL
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Locating books for interlibrary loan, with a bibliography of printed aids which show location of books in American libraries. By CONSTANCE M. WINCHELL. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1930. Pp. 170. \$4.00.

Although this book claims to be only an essay on interlibrary loans, it is in reality a most admirable monograph on reference method or method of verification and research for the reference librarian. It has already been used as a supplementary text in a library-school course in advanced bibliography.

Its appeal should not be alone to the large library where interlibrary loans present a real problem but fully as much to the small library where reference tools are meager and, because of the infrequency of the needs for them, the importance of bibliographical details are often forgotten.

The book is divided into two parts as its title indicates. Less than one-third of its 170 pages concern themselves with a discussion of the problems of interlibrary loans and how these problems have been handled in the Columbia University Library. The balance of the work contains the bibliography which in itself will prove to be a most useful reference tool.

The historical background is given as the introduction to the problem. Like so many other modern library practices, its development dates from 1876, although it was occasionally resorted to as early as 1850. The book is so well documented that no further study of the subject should ever be necessary. The salient facts in the development of the custom are given in quotations from printed reports and articles. Next comes a statement of "present practice." This is one of the most important parts of the work, as it explains the difficulties which the lending library encounters because of the inefficiency of the borrowing library. Sixty per cent of the requests for the loan of books received by Columbia in one year were inaccurate.

The "Problem of where to borrow" suggests six types of libraries which should be considered before any request is sent out, and leads directly to a study of the detailed "Methods of locating books." Various kinds of printed library catalogues and bibliographies are mentioned and examples given of their use. Under the heading "Card catalogs" the Union Catalog at the Library of Congress is fully described. Finally, there are a few paragraphs on the development of a working collection of library catalogues to be used in carrying on successful interlibrary loans.

Part II is devoted to a "Bibliography of printed aids which show location of books in American libraries," completed by an "Author and subject index." The entries are in complete bibliographical form and are often accompanied by contents or other explanatory notes. The books are grouped under twenty-nine subjects, many of them with divisions and subdivisions. The list in itself is easy to use, and it is supplemented by an excellent index. This bibliography will serve many purposes beyond being a key for the borrowing of books. A library which includes these books in its reference collection will be in a position to answer very many questions which arise without the necessity of writing to a distant institution. It is an excellent and very inclusive list but, of course, is limited to bibliographies which give definite locations for the items which they mention.

The book is meticulous in its detail, suggestive in its content, and an admirable addition to the slowly growing body of material on library technique.

F. L. D. GOODRICH

LIBRARY OF THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

XXXVIII^e Bibliographie géographique 1928. Published by the ASSOCIATION DE GÉOGRAPHES FRANÇAIS with the collaboration of the American Geographical Society, the Comitato Geografico Nazionale Italiano, the Royal Geographical Society (London), and the Société Royale de Géographie d'Égypte, with the co-operation of the Fédération des Sociétés Françaises de Sciences Naturelles, under the direction of ELICIO COLIN. Paris: Librairie Armand Colin, 1929. Pp. 624.

This volume, which is the thirty-eighth of the series of geographical bibliographies published by the Association de Géographes Français, illustrates the indispensable relation between the study of geography and that of all the social and natural sciences. The director has included in it articles and books relating to subjects so diverse as the distribution of mineral resources in Eastern Europe, the history of watch-making in France since the reign of Henri IV, the commerce of the Roman Empire, and the recent flights of Commander Richard Byrd. There are thousands of titles, mainly of publications which appeared in 1928 or late in 1927; and in most cases there are excellent brief *comptes-rendus*. The volume is divided into two parts; in the first the titles are arranged according to subjects, in the second according to countries. Almost no region in the world has been omitted. Monsieur Colin in his work has had the collaboration of many European and American scholars, and the result is an admirably comprehensive survey of recent geographical literature, a perusal of which by any student of the social sciences is almost sure to reveal items of interest.

JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Nature index: 5000 selected references to nature forms and illustrations of nature in design, painting and sculpture. Compiled by JESSIE CROFT ELLIS. ("Useful reference series," No. 41.) Boston: F. W. Faxon Co., 1930. Pp. 319. \$3.00.

About 30 magazines and 70 books, catalogues, and yearbooks of architecture, design, natural science, and industrial arts have been included in this index. It is divided into four sections: (1) books and periodicals indexed, (2) nature index; (3) landscapes; (4) terms used in decorative design.

The books and magazines listed in Part 1 are authoritative and excellent, but the number out-of-print and of early century date will limit its usefulness, while many titles should be added. Out-of-print information should be given opposite titles, also the volumes and years of periodicals indexed.

Part 2, the index proper, refers to objects of nature in their natural setting, and in sculpture, painting, and design.

The plan is a simple alphabetic arrangement of common names of plants and animals. While the general plan is excellent, details have not been consistently developed. Many more cross-references, or duplicate entries, are needed. A typical example is "Terriers" and "Fox terrier," both of which have been used without cross-reference, while under "Terrier" are references to "Boston terrier" and "German terrier," and a direct entry under "Terrier—Scottish," but no reference from Scotch terrier. In each instance there is only one entry, in one case to an 1897 periodical.

Subjects have been subclassified in numerous instances. For example, "beaks," "feathers," "feet," "flying," are subdivisions under "Birds"; applications to design have been indicated by "border," "in design," "porcelain," "textile design," and other divisions. This analysis would be invaluable if more thorough and up-to-date. It seems incredible, for example, that in all the sources indexed there should be only one illustration of a fox terrier, and that in an 1897 periodical; or, that the only available picture of "Dog—listening to Victrola" was on a back cover of a 1917 magazine. An example of a blind entry is "Red winged blackbird. *See* Blackbird," with no division under the latter to distinguish the references. Divisions for form, technique, pose, etc., need to be greatly expanded and modernized.

Part 3, "Landscapes," follows the same general plan, but is so limited in extent that its value is questionable.

Part 4, "Terms used in decorative design," is a useful section.

The mechanical makeup is all that could be desired. Well bound, clearly printed on good paper, it is printed on one side of the leaf, and interleaved.

Compiled in the Architectural Library of the University of Michigan, the *Index* is designed primarily for the use of art and decorative design classes, and is evidently based upon daily demands and the use of sources immediately available. It undoubtedly has a local value, and is a fine example of making the work in a particular library available to many. To teachers and students who have access to all or most of the publications indexed, it may prove helpful, and to a limited extent to others. It has no rival in its field, and should prove of value to other libraries as a suggestion for indexing their own material. The idea is intriguing, and has such possibilities of usefulness, not only to colleges and schools of design, but to public schools, that it is to be hoped the author may, in a future edition, take into account all the interests to be served, and considerably improve the technique.

JULIA E. ELLIOTT

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Materials for the life of Shakespeare. Compiled by PIERCE BUTLER, Dean of H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College, Tulane University of Louisiana. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1930. Pp. xii+200. \$2.00.

Mere homonymy has never yet been listed in any authoritative code of journalistic ethics as sufficient ground for disbarring a reviewer. If some interested organization—the Authors' League, for instance—will base a friendly suit at law upon the following criticism, the point might be settled for all time by a Supreme Court ruling handed down by a certain member of that body.

Any librarian will recognize at once in Dean Butler's book a valuable addition to our apparatus for Shakespearean studies. Its gentle tone of competence, the quiet discussion by a veteran bookman of literary problems in which years of familiarity have matured his judgment, suggest a scholar's study that is not completely a workshop. The book is in pleasing contrast to the multitude of publications in the field of English studies with which the librarian is so familiar: critical investigations, observing every nicety of technique, industriously and conscientiously performed, but betraying on every page the arbitrary selection of a "research project" and the determination to achieve a scholarship for which no cultural foundation has been laid.

For the bibliographer, however, the book will be most significant as a typical example of the common failure of humanistic scholarship to adopt the newer methods of bibliographical history. Dean Butler's avowed purpose is to bring together the main primary sources of our knowledge of Shakespeare the author. For one important aspect, the speedy acceptance of his writings by the English reading world, literary allusions are adroitly used; but no attempt is made to furnish bibliographical data for its evidential value in this matter. Indeed, in his fifth chapter the author shows clearly that he still thinks of bibliography as enumerative and descriptive memoranda of no particular significance. He is evidently unaware that in its later developments this discipline has become a distinct method in the historical synthesis. In this he is not alone. Few other scholars seem to know of the movement, although such ignorance is perhaps less frequent in the Shakespearean field than elsewhere, because it is here that Mr. Pollard has transplanted most successfully the bibliographical conceptions evolved by incunabulists.

It is, of course, in incunabula studies that the methods of bibliographical history were first devised. Here was a closed corpus of material for which generations of workers had accumulated a vast bulk of factual observations. Here also was to be found a wider range of variation than in later periods, when book production had settled into conventional uniformity. And so it was here very naturally that bibliographers first came to perceive that a book as a material artefact was direct evidence of the culture that produced it. Thus we have learned gradually to think of bibliography itself as the archaeology of literary history.

Dean Butler's failure to include bibliographical data is, therefore, a far more serious omission in our professional judgment than the formal infelicities of citation in his "Selected bibliography." He might well have summarized Shakespeare's publication record in comparison with those of the other dramatists of the period. That so many of his quartos were more than once reprinted, that four collected editions appeared before the close of the seventeenth century (or rather five, if we count the 1619 issue) should, as our most objective evidence of Shakespeare's literary popularity, be given greater emphasis than even coeval critical appraisalment by individual authors.

PIERCE BUTLER

NEWBERRY LIBRARY

Vergiliana. A Selected list of books for library exhibits together with suggested material for exhibition labels. Compiled and edited by JOHN WILLIAM SPAETH, JR., PH.D., Associate Professor of Classics, Wesleyan University. ("American classical league publication," No. 39.) New York: American Classical League, 1930. Pp. 30. 15 cents per copy; 10 for one dollar; one hundred for \$7.50.

Any librarian will do well to study this pamphlet carefully whether he is interested in Virgil or not. It reveals vividly, because of its small compass, certain tendencies of great significance in modern bibliographical practice. The tendencies here at work are producing similar results almost daily in other fields of bibliography; but because they are usually concealed in a mass of detail, we ordinarily fail to discover them. Here, however, the field is so sparsely planted that one may see it clearly.

Dr. Spaeth, the compiler, is a scholar whose training presumably included no study of bibliographical theory. The work he has undertaken involves an enumeration of a certain group of books. So he has taken as his model, very naturally, the one great enumeration with which he is most familiar—the catalogue of his university library. In this he is typical of the whole class of scholars to whom we owe our most valuable subject bibliographies. If he departs at all from their common standards, it is by extraordinary success in following this model. Indeed, one must surmise that he has not merely copied catalogue entries but has mastered the code under which they were prepared. Obviously, his results furnish the librarian with precious data for evaluating catalogue practice when transferred bodily to a purely bibliographical field.

A bibliography is, of course, something quite different from a library catalogue. It is a historical synthesis of certain events in literary history. A catalogue is a list, a descriptive enumeration, of certain specific material objects. There is thus an antecedent probability that processes, however admirably they may be adapted to the cataloguer's purposes, cannot safely be taken over without modification by the bibliographer for his somewhat different tasks. The danger of such a procedure is repeatedly demonstrated in this pamphlet.

For example, the cataloguer uses birth and death years to establish his author's identity and publication dates to distinguish editions. The bibliographer's chronology is concerned only with the sequence of texts. Dr. Spaeth, in his enumeration of Virgil texts and translations, follows the bibliographical principle; but he fails to show clearly what this bibliographical chronology is and frequently obscures it by copying from catalogue entries dates of biography and of the specific edition exhibited. These figures are irrelevant to his main purpose.

In a similar manner the cataloguer, in his record, transcribes titles as they are printed. Thus such a term as "Works" or "Poems" may indicate varying degrees of inclusion according to the critical opinions of various editors. The bibliographer's interest is solely with texts. Again Dr. Spaeth had tried to follow a bibliographical principle, but with an incongruous technique. He conforms, unfortunately, with the cataloguer's habit of relegating all explanation to footnotes. Consequently a reader of this pamphlet must inevitably assume that Dr. Spaeth has a most extraordinary enthusiasm for the Virgilian Appendix. Repetition and prominence in location give false emphasis. It would have been smoother work if he had inserted in the titles themselves the necessary indication of their inclusiveness.

Of quite a different sort is the inadequacy of method which reveals itself whenever our bibliographer attempts to record data for which he finds no cataloguing precedent. Professional experience has taught the cataloguer the value of consistent patterns. He has learned that one must generalize the categories within which he will work before he begins his task, and that one must cling to this pattern, even slavishly, until he finishes his task. (One need not, of course, in so doing necessarily fall into the library workers' delusion that such a specific routine has the final cogency of moral law.) Certainly the work will prove unsatisfactory when one vacillates as Dr. Spaeth does in recording now this and now that fact concerning his books and authors—academic status, metrical forms, and the like.

A catalogue contains bibliographical elements but is not itself a bibliography. The cataloguer's facts are specific; the bibliographer's generic. It is only by the accident of mechanical production that a description of a particular printed copy is equally accurate for every other specimen of the edition. In the last analysis a bibliographer cannot go below the edition and usually not below the text. Thus, on theoretical grounds it is no less unfortunate than it is on practical grounds fortunate, that a catalogue can so easily seem to usurp the position of a bibliography.

And finally, it may not be altogether irrelevant to remark that when the writer of this present review compiled a catalogue of the Virgil exhibition at the Newberry Library last summer, his mixture of the two techniques differed in no particular from that in Dr. Spaeth's pamphlet.

PIERCE BUTLER

NEWBERRY LIBRARY

Incunabula and Americana (1450-1800). A Key to bibliographical study. By MARGARET BINGHAM STILLWELL, Librarian of the Annmary Brown Memorial. New York: Columbia University Press, 1931. Pp. xviii+483. \$12.00.

Voici un beau livre! In format, type, paper, and both qualitative and quantitative information this book is a delight. Moreover, with her technical knowledge, Miss Stillwell unites a kindling enthusiasm for her subject. The work may be described as a key to bibliographical study, and falls into three parts. The first relates to incunabula and its study. The second relates to Americana from 1492 to 1700, with notes on later Americana through the Revolutionary period. The third, the reference sections, deals with notes and definitions, bibliographical terminology, Latin contractions and abbreviations, place-names of fifteenth-century printing towns, and selected bibliographies. Occasionally there are wise observations in regard to methods of study, *obiter dicta* which are the fruit of experience and reflection, as for example:

Bibliographical analysis, however, and the fine points in the technique of the game, should not be mistaken for bibliography itself. Behind the physical make-up and the questions involved in determining the physical origin of a book are an understanding and evaluation of its subject-matter. Behind these is the personality of its author. Behind that is the relation of the book and of its writer to the thought of the times. Technical analysis is but a means to an end. It is the chemical analysis through which—in its accurate identification of author, place, date, printer, edition, etc.—each printed work is given its rightful place among the records of the past.

This work will answer many questions which perplex a beginner in the lore of rare books, and will even be of benefit to a veteran in that field. The reviewer regrets, however, that the author has prefaced this valuable work with a preliminary chapter on the invention of printing. It was not necessary unto her purpose, and as history is both insufficient and defective. "The form of handwriting used by the scribes . . . quite naturally became the basis of design for the fonts of type cast," is not the whole explanation of why the earliest printed books imitated the book in manuscript. Medieval scribes did *not* make their copies from dictation in the scriptorium. The two grants of indulgence of 1454 and 1455 are both credited to Gutenberg, although these indulgences are printed in different types and presumably point to two separate printers and two separate presses. It is impossible to prove, in the present state of our knowledge, the priority of either Gutenberg or Schoeffer; and the so-called Gutenberg Bible, upon whose *grandeur* Miss Stillwell descends, certainly cannot be ascribed to Gutenberg beyond peradventure. In a historical inquiry it is begging the question to say that, "Like Shakespeare's plays, it is the achievement itself that counts. Controversialists may wrangle and savants ponder. The achievement transcends controversy." Again, it is an error to say that "The world did not know that it was round" until 1492. Having opened the door into Clío's sanctum, Miss Stillwell has merely stood upon the threshold and has hesitated to enter in.

It is regrettable that the generally excellent bibliographies in some sections are deficient—e.g., those on paper and on bookselling. And why should Savonarola be distinguished by a special bibliography? Some classifications are singular. Thus it elicits a smile to find A. L. Simon's *Bibliotheca Bacchica* classified under "thirst."

JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

English collectors of books and manuscripts (1530-1930) and their marks of ownership. By SEYMOUR DE RICCI. New York: Macmillan Co.; Cambridge, England: University Press, 1930. Pp. ix+203. \$5.00.

This book comprises four lectures delivered at Cambridge University in 1929 on the Sandars Foundation, the author being the first foreign scholar honored with such an invitation. He modestly describes the work as "a hasty parade of great English book-sales." Actually it is an integration of the wide variety of booklore afforded by English library and sale catalogues of the seventeenth, eighteenth, nineteenth, and even twentieth century. Herein is illuminating information with regard to collectors and collections, the history and causes of the variations of taste in book-collecting, the private marks and marginalia of collectors, insignia of classification, and shelf-marks, the heraldry of bindings, the fluctuations of prices, etc. The catalogues of English book sales, the earliest of which is of 1676, constitute a valuable source of information which hitherto has not been sufficiently exploited. Mr. Seymour De Ricci has diligently used the great British Museum series of over 8,000 catalogues, and supplemented these by examination of the files of those world-famed book-auction firms of which London boasts. Only one who has been initiated into the mysteries of this kind of research can understand the amount of labor entailed to trace in successive catalogues the appearance or appearances of any given volume. The preparation of these four lectures must have consumed an enormous amount of time. The library world is a debtor to Mr. De Ricci's diligence.

JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The Social work year book, 1929. Edited by FRED S. HALL. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1930. Pp. 600.

This book is a combination yearbook and encyclopedia of activities in the field of social work. It is the first appearance of an encyclopedia or yearbook for this field and will be very useful to reference librarians, sociologists, social workers, and indeed to the student of social problems in general. It is an event of some importance, made possible by the Russell Sage Foundation. There are about 400,000 words in the volume, and the whole range of social

work topics in the broadest sense of the term is covered. In addition, there is a comprehensive list in Part II of national agencies at work in the field, with a short account of each. So, if one wishes to find out about adoption of children, social settlements, marriage laws, unemployment, psychiatric case work, workers' education, or other activities dealing with such problems, this volume is a good reference. Most of the articles appear to have two or three thousand words in them. The treatment consists of, first, a definition or an exposition of concepts; second, a short account of the early history; third, a rather longer description of the present status; and finally a record of events in 1929 occurring in the particular field. Each article is signed, and there is a short bibliography at the close of each one. The cross-referencing seems to be adequate. There is no index, but the articles are arranged alphabetically in accordance with *Cutter's rules for a dictionary catalogue*.

A sampling of the contributions shows them to be careful statements of facts with a minimum of exploitation of the writers' prejudices, unless it be optimism, since each activity is described generally by a specialist working in that field. They are well edited, and the samples read give an impression of clarity and accuracy. Perhaps the weakest point is the record of events in 1929. The legislative record during the year is particularly thorough, but it is felt that in many cases other developments of the various movements might have been recorded more fully or more penetratingly with reference to the significant points. The writers erred perhaps on the side of caution. In the next volume more effort and time may be spent in the setting-forth of events of the year, as the history and status has already been worked up. It must be very difficult to work up the yearly happenings over so many fields. One final point should be noted and in commendation. This is a field in which it is very easy to run in interpretations of a personal or prejudiced nature, because many of the topics are of a controversial nature. The contributors, of whom there is a very distinguished list—the best of the social workers—have written with relatively little of these unfounded interpretations and statements of values.

WILLIAM F. OGBURN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A Systematic source book in rural sociology. Edited by PITIRIM A. SOROKIN, CARLE C. ZIMMERMAN, and CHARLES J. GALPIN. Vol. I. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930. Pp. 645+xi.

This is the first volume of what is to be a three-volume work when complete. As the editorship justifies the expectation that the volumes yet to come will measure up to the high standard set in this, one is safe in saying that the complete work will constitute a significant contribution to the development of rural sociology. The excellence of this work is shown not only in the

materials chosen but in the quality of the connecting text that serves as a setting and gives coherence to the larger subjects treated.

Part I is a historical introduction consisting of four chapters. Chapter i is devoted to ancient sources; and chapter ii, which constitutes somewhat more than a half of Part I, is devoted to a study of the fourteenth to the nineteenth centuries. Chapter iv consists of selections devoted to considerations of the differences between the rural and urban worlds. The theme of Part II, which is more than a half of the volume, is "Rural social organization in its ecological and morphological aspects."

Of the several reasons given in the Preface for issuing the volume, one alone justifies the expenditure of energy and funds, great though they have been:

The economics of agriculture, justly popular in colleges of agriculture as an interpreter and guide among the agricultural sciences, has confined itself so largely to the operations of individual farmers, on the one hand, and to the physical operations and aspects of farmer groups, on the other, that the socio-psychic aspects and relations of the human factor in agriculture are in danger of eclipse. Public action also, in large matters of agricultural policy, is likely to be based unduly on purely economic formulas. To restore the proper balance to economic considerations in agricultural education and public policy, a sound presentation of the sociological elements in agricultural progress is greatly to be desired.

It is undoubtedly true that the system of agricultural education developed in our secondary schools and colleges of agriculture has in a large measure ignored the human element. In all probability this is partly due to the limited range of vision of a large proportion of those who are in administrative positions in the field of agricultural education, but the lack of an adequate body of organized materials has been a deterrent to the development of instruction dealing with the human side of farming. The *Source book* will do much to remedy this deficiency. It should not be inferred that the work will be of use only in institutions giving instruction in agriculture. The significance of the social changes that rural life is undergoing makes it important that the rural phase should have attention in courses in general sociology. Every institution of higher learning in which sociology is a subject of study should have this work in its library.

G. A. WORKS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

[EDITOR'S NOTE.—It will be the policy of the *Library quarterly* to publish reviews, by competent scholars in the various fields, of books of scholarly merit by librarians in subjects other than library science. The following review of Mr. Lydenberg's work is included in pursuance of this general policy.]

Archibald Robertson, Lieutenant General Royal Engineers. His Diaries and sketches in America, 1762-1780. Edited with an Introduction by HARRY MILLER LYDENBERG. New York: The New York Public Library, 1930. Pp. x+300. \$10.00.

Before the day of the camera, captive balloon, and aeroplane, the military observer, equipped with field glasses, pencil, rule, and compasses, sketched the terrain of the enemy from church steeple or hill-top. If the landscape was drawn accurately to scale, with roads and woods, buildings and fortifications, all shown in their proper places, the purpose of the commanding officer was served, and a plan of attack could be more intelligently devised.

Most rarely was the sketchman an artist, who, beyond the demands of his immediate task, reflected in his work the beauty of the country which hid the foe, and found joy in adorning the foreground of his landscapes with Arcadian shepherdesses tending their flocks. Of this number was Archibald Robertson. He, with James and John Montresor, William Roy, Robert Morse, and others, did much to raise the little band of British army engineers from inefficiency and obscurity in 1760 to deserved recognition by the close of the century.

Robertson, of a proud Scottish family, cousin of William, the historian, and kin of architects well known in their day, entered the engineering corps in 1759. Thereafter until 1783 he saw much active service in the West Indies and North America. From this period of his life have survived over fifty sketches bearing his signature, together with his diaries covering the first seven months of the British expedition against Havana in 1762, and the American Revolution from August, 1775, to the close of November, 1780. The drawings include thirty-five views of the countryside about Boston and New York; four sketches of the British fleet at sea in 1776; four Nova Scotian scenes; and one each of Morro Castle and Philadelphia. More technical in nature are plans drawn by Robertson of the British fort at Pensacola in 1763 and 1764, and maps of the Battle of White Plains, New York, in 1777, and of Charlestown Neck, South Carolina, three years later.

The New York Public Library acquired these sketches and journals about a dozen years ago and has now published them in a limited *de luxe* edition of 230 copies. The volume is of quarto size, with back of calf, rag paper, wide margins, and many collotype plates, not only of Robertson's drawings, and portraits by Romney of the general and his wife, but also of pages from his diaries containing significant entries. Mr. Lydenberg, the editor, may well point to this work as an example of the high standard of craftsmanship advocated by him in his *Paper or sawdust—a plea for good paper for good books*, published in 1924.

Mr. Lydenberg's scholarly introduction of about fifty pages, supplemented by additional material in the notes at the close of the volume, makes pleasant reading. Here is told the little now known of the life and work of Archibald Robertson beyond the six-year record of his own diaries. For almost thirty years after his retirement from active service in 1786, the soldier quietly enjoyed life as the master of a large estate in Scotland. Occasionally, ministers of state sought his advice upon questions of military moment; and in a letter to Viscount Melville in 1807, outlining a plan of attack upon the United States in the event of war, he unerringly pointed out what England would have to learn six years later at a considerable loss of "blood and treasure." Although Robertson was only a major of Royal Engineers at the close of twenty-seven years of field duty, he had been advanced to a lieutenant generalcy by the time of his death in 1813.

During the Revolution, Captain Robertson shared in the siege of Boston, the campaigns centering on New York and Philadelphia, and the Charlestown expedition. He planned the British route of march across New Jersey from Philadelphia to Sandy Hook in the torrid summer of 1778, and, because of his assignment to the Quartermaster's Department, led forays deep into the enemy's country in search of "fat Bullocks" and fodder for the horses. With many of his fellow-officers he regarded "the rebels" with scorn, although he was amazed at the rapidity and skill with which they fortified Dorchester Heights in early March, 1776, and hoped that Washington's victories at Trenton and Princeton would "serve as a lesson in future never to despise any Enemy two (*sic*) much." More often, however, the reader meets laconic entries of this tenor: "Killed a few Militia and drove in 5 or 600 head of Cattle."

The military historian will find much of interest in these journals. Some hint is given of the toll taken by hardships and fever during the Havana expedition; but more is written of epaulments, bastions, fascines, gabions, coehorns, and howitzers. Eighteenth-century artillery seems to have been singularly ineffective. On May 3, 1780, at the siege of Charlestown, after brisk cannonading day after day for several weeks, Robertson wrote: "A good deal of Firing. We may Allow 7 or 8 men hurt every 24 hours for 8 or 10 Days past. There are only 43 in the General Hospital by Wounds." Nevertheless, bombardment caused heavy property damage; and General Washington before Boston in 1776, and General Lincoln at Charlestown four years later, were hindered in their operations against the British by their unwillingness to fire upon (or to give cause for the enemy to fire upon) the homes of the townspeople.

A weary soldier can be tantalizingly brief in his diary after a day of severe fighting or marching. Robertson was no exception to the rule, and events of large importance were often dismissed with scant notice. Because these journals tell much about the weather, the number of miles marched, the places of encampment, and the losses by death and desertion, they will be invaluable to students who wish to follow day by day the itinerary of the British army in

the middle states from 1776 to 1780. A very detailed index, forty pages in length, shows that Robertson makes mention of no less than 110 ships of the Royal Navy and almost as many units of the land forces. While he was keeping a record of events, Patrick Mackellar and John Montresor, brother-officers of the Royal Engineers, were also describing many of the same scenes in their journals. Their accounts, long since published, furnish an interesting supplement and check to the diaries of Archibald Robertson.

WILLIAM T. HUTCHINSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Universities—American, English, German. By ABRAHAM FLEXNER.
New York: Oxford University Press, 1930. Pp. 362. \$3.50.

This volume consists of four parts, each devoted to one of the following topics: "The Idea of a Modern University," "American Universities," "English Universities," and "German Universities." The space devoted to American universities is more than twice that given to the English and more than three times that allotted to the German universities. This, it should be understood, is not due to the virtues possessed by American universities, but decidedly the opposite. Dr. Flexner finds our universities so shot through with weaknesses, as measured by his opinions, that it is necessary for him to devote more than a half of the volume to a presentation of them.

Certainly good will come from the publication of this book. Dr. Flexner's name is so widely known and his use of language so effective that the attention of thousands who might otherwise have remained in relative ignorance of our institutions of higher learning will now be drawn to the work of these institutions. In the long run this is certain to be productive of good. The influence of the volume would have been greater had the language been more temperate and the illustrations less extreme. At least this is true of its influence in university circles. This is about as far as one feels he can go in speaking favorably of the portion of the volume dealing with American universities. The treatment of the entire subject lacks in objectivity. True, Dr. Flexner has cited examples of the shortcomings of American universities, but they are of such an extreme nature and are so rarely to be found that they give a distorted view of the institutions. The lack of factual material to give a true perspective was not apparently an inhibiting factor in Dr. Flexner's treatment of his subject. On the contrary, it gave him a range and freedom that has resulted in a dogmatic treatment of topics that would not have been made by one who had a more intimate acquaintance with the real work of our great universities. The research and instruction of American universities is too far-reaching in significance and, in the main, of too, fundamental a character, to be adequately treated by the subjective method used by Dr. Flexner in this volume.

In the first paragraph of Part I occurs the sentence: "... I am endeavoring to indicate in the most explicit fashion that a university, like all other human institutions—like the church, like governments, like philanthropic organizations—is not outside, but inside the general social fabric of a given era." No one who fails to bear this statement in mind can understand American education, regardless of the level at which it is being considered. As one reads the part dealing with American universities, he is led irresistibly to the view that Dr. Flexner straightway forgot he had written this sentence or that he has permitted himself to lose touch both with universities and with life. His discussion of "The Idea of a Modern University" fails to take into account the distinctive qualities of the American universities, and, therefore, he disregards their essential spirit when he chooses his illustrations for the chapter "American Universities." That higher education as it is being developed in this country has its weaknesses none will gainsay. These weaknesses, however, are not accurately portrayed by a patchwork consisting of the occasional absurdities of individual faculty members, or even more rarely those of an institution.

GEORGE A. WORKS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

CORRESPONDENCE

[These pages are intended for communications which, in the opinion of the Board of Editors, are likely to be of interest to others than the individuals writing them.]

February 24, 1931

To the Editor of the LIBRARY QUARTERLY

In the January number of the *Library quarterly* you print a review of the History and Travel Section of the *Standard catalog for public libraries, 1929*. There are several definite inaccuracies in the review in question which I am sure you will wish to correct when they are called to your attention.

Your reviewer criticizes the work for the omission of 47 titles which he thinks should have been included. May I call your attention to the following facts about some of these titles which your reviewer lists as serious omissions:

1. Three of these "omissions" are actually included in their right places in the History and Travel Section, in both the main work and the Index. These three, and the pages on which they appear, are: Holderness, *Peoples and problems of India*, p. 137, where it is starred for first purchase; A. V. Williams Jackson, *Persia past and present*, p. 139; Johnson, *Historian and historical evidence*, p. 4.

2. A fourth title, Wilhelm, *Short history of Chinese civilization*, the omission of which is criticized, was published too late in 1929 to be even considered for inclusion (our Preface particularly states that no books published after the middle of 1929 are included). This fourth title is, however, included and starred for first purchase in the *1930 Supplement* to the History and Travel Section, which was published by the time your review appeared. Incidentally, the Section itself was more than a year old by the time the review appeared.

3. A whole class, 915.5, is said by your reviewer to be missing from the Section. This class, which contains seven titles, is in its right place on page 139.

4. Another title mentioned as omitted is given as "Mrs. Ady, *Milan under the Visconti*." This may be a "bibliographic ghost" created by the reviewer, as the title he gives is not included in any list of Mrs. Ady's writings that we have been able to see. Does he perhaps mean the *History of Milan under the Visconti*, by Dorothy Muir, or the *History of Milan under the Sforza*, by Miss Cecilia Mary Ady (Mrs. Ady's daughter)?

5. Three of the "omissions" naturally classify with the Social Sciences rather than with History, and one of these, F. F. Abbott, *Roman politics*, is actually included in the Social Sciences Section of the *Standard catalog*, p. 66. Your reviewer in another place mentions the fact that the Social Sciences Section must sometimes be used with the History and Travel Section, so one may perhaps assume that he would look there for a work which might classify in that section.

6. Of the remaining 41 titles criticized by your reviewer as omissions, 17 are out of print in this country, and three of these have been out of print here since 1906. As the *Standard catalog* is used largely as a buying list by small and medium-sized libraries, it cannot include any large proportion of out-of-print books, and this policy is plainly stated in the Preface.

Your reviewer calls the arrangement by the decimal classification "adherence to an obsolete method." It would be interesting to know why he considers a classification obsolete which is used in a majority of our public libraries (so that these libraries are now paying to have decimal-classification numbers placed on Library of Congress printed cards) and taught in all our accredited library schools.

While inaccuracies in the review are to be deplored, perhaps even more serious from the viewpoint of the usefulness of the review is the fact that the reviewer has apparently failed entirely to grasp the purpose of the *Catalog*, although a careful reading of the Preface should have enlightened him. The list, which the reviewer criticizes as failing the scholar, specifically states that it is intended to be a practical list of such books as the average small and medium-sized public library will be able to afford and will find most useful. It should therefore be judged primarily from the point of view of how it serves such libraries. In serving such, it often serves large libraries, also, which do need and use books in English, even though the reviewer seems to question the usefulness of a bibliography which includes only works in English. It would be interesting to know whether the reviewer knows the problem of book selection and book use in the small public libraries—a very different problem from what is the best book on a subject for a scholar's use. A comprehensive scholarly bibliography of historical material in all languages is much needed, but the *Standard catalog* makes no claim to take the place of such a list. Incidentally, a joint committee of the American Historical Association and the American Library Association has had such a list in preparation since 1920.

MINNIE EARL SEARS

March 10, 1931

Miss Minnie Earl Sears
Editor, *Standard Catalog Series*

DEAR MISS SEARS:

Mr. Randall, managing editor of the *Library quarterly*, has passed your letter of February 24 over to me, anent my review of your *Standard catalog—history and travel section*.

I enumerated 47 titles which it seemed to me were important omissions. Seventeen of these you demur against because they are "out of print," i.e., appeared before 1906. I fail to understand the reasoning in this matter. The year 1906 is not an ancient date, and there are thousands of old-book dealers. Every decent library is continually examining old-book catalogues and ordering therefrom. Because a book happens to be out of print, if it is of reasonably recent date, is no reason why it should not be listed in a competent bibliography. In addition, Wilhelm's *Short history of Chinese civilization*, it is

pleaded, was published too late in 1929 for inclusion. Was not the publisher's announcement available in time? But for the sake of your argument we will eliminate these disputable titles.

There remain 29 works. Three of these may be further deducted and exempted from my criticism. For in these instances I freely admit that I committed the *lapsus mentis* of writing one author and one title when I intended another author and another title. When I wrote Holderness, *Peoples and problems of India*, I had in mind Holdich's *The Indian borderland* and his *The gates of India*—which are omitted. In like manner I intended Lord Curzon's *Persia and the Persian problem* when I inadvertently wrote Jackson's *Persia, past and present*, and had J. M. Vincent's *Historical research* in mind when I wrote Allen Johnson's *The Historian and historical evidence*.

This sort of error is one well known to mental processes. It is not one of ignorance, nor yet of carelessness, but a species of mental transformation akin to the use of synecdoche in rhetoric. I readily plead guilty to this "error" and apologize therefor. But I think that the grievance which you feel is more apparent than real.

The omission of both Miss Cecilia Ady's *History of Milan under the Sforza* and of Miss Dorothy Muir's *History of Milan under the Visconti*, I think, cancels my sin of attributing a "History of Milan under the Visconti" to Mrs. Ady—Miss Cecilia Ady's mother. I trust that the "bibliographic ghost" which I seem to have exorcised will not in future haunt the precincts of any library.

As to the plea that F. F. Abbott's *Roman politics* is rather "social history" than history, and so is included in the Social Science Section of the *Standard catalog*, p. 66, I fail to perceive the force of the argument. History is certainly past politics.

In fine: even when allowance is made for the "factor of error," there is still a considerable debit of omissions. I decline to retract my stricture in regard to the omission of all works in foreign languages. French and German are taught in every reputable high school in the country, and Spanish in many of them. If this education means anything, it means that the youth of the land which are taught these languages ought to be provided with literature and history in these languages. Otherwise such education is mere pretention, an idle gesture, and the public libraries which follow this unenlightened course are failing of their duty to society.

The validity of the Dewey system of classification is a matter upon which I do not care to argue. But there are many librarians who agree with the sentiment expressed that it is "an obsolete method."

Yours very truly,

JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON



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